

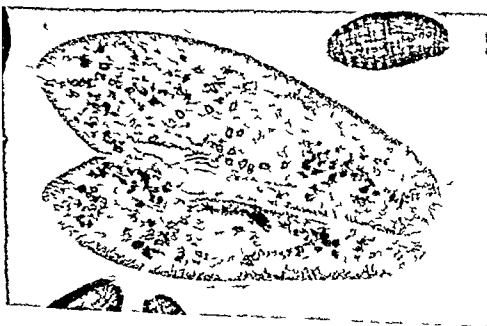
McGraw-Hill Encyclopedia of Science and Technology

of Science and Technology

AN INTERNATIONAL REFERENCE WORK

IN FIFTEEN VOLUMES INCLUDING AN INDEX

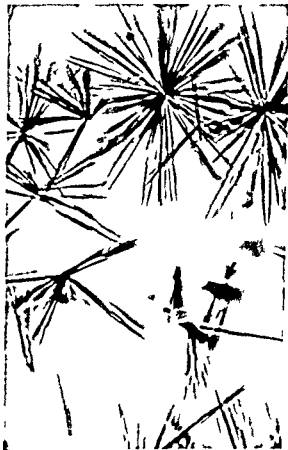
VOLUME 7 IBE LYT



McGraw-Hill Encyclopedia

McGRAW HILL BOOK COMPANY INC

NEW YORK CHICAGO SAN FRANCISCO DALLAS TORONTO LONDON



Suggestions to the Readers

Th l pla f th E cl p e l a e pl e l
h re f r t f t a t t
The s by i m t t f t e r u d e p l u s o r
b h f d t l n l m o g a n e l
t m t e l l a r f t l p r o d e a t a l
r a e f t h f i l d i a n m b e f p r t e a t l
l p h b e t l l a a a d e e t m n l l y n
a l m e p e c f i a p e t
C r f e g d t h e r l f m t l e r a l
a r t f t t h t h r t l t l h t h l j c t
h l d n l f m t l s r t c l e n e
h l l y p l l p h f t h e b y e t T l c
r f t e e l t r 0000 f t l e a e
p r o t e l u m l e c l l l t s t l t h c a n b e
l d f n f t h c o r f r s
a l m f l l a f E L E T R C A L E N I V E F
t h h E L E T R I C S a n d V A C U U M T U B E t
E L E C T R O I V A L T E R E L E C T R O N E I O N
O f f l t h l f f t h e
r l d b e l l t E L E C T R I C P O W E R S Y S T E M
T R A N S M I T T E R E L E C T R O M A G N E T I C A V E a l

f l h t l e b e n w i t h a d f t f
t h t l t h t a t t p a n d r e e L l l
l t f t f i t h l l n e d u t
M t f t h a t l e s a f t t h s t a t m t g n t
n l m p l e x d d e l i o n d a t A
t t l f t p e e d n l f s h
l t a d j m n t d e t a t
Th l n l V l m 15 h l l b e h d t
l t t h d u f t o p e d n t h F n
l p e l b t n i g v n i p a t t i
E r v p l f m l a d r d r n t h p l t a n d
m a l k l m l l t t e d p a r a t r l M n
f t h m m m f m l e e a l p e c
e d t h f t d a s l o n
e p t a t l t n n t i f m m n
m
Th d i t l t d l t r l l n
t h f l l E l t n c n t n p l
f n t l e d l y a e y l t t y

e p l e o f d o n a f r i n t a n l r f n r a
t l e t r i m t e l e t r E l e t r a l
l a t e l t p t n n t r a t e l w i l e l e t r t v
l u t n t h t j p e t r c l a r i r t a
f a m p l e e l e t r a l e o d e l e t r a l p e c
W r d e d t t l r w l e r e p a l l e g r n
m t h e m l a t p e r m i n t t a l p h e t e
a r t t T i t l e a l p h a b e t e d l y w n l a l
n t b l l t e r f m p l

Earth sciences

Earth tides

Earthmover

Earthquake

A o t e d a p r e l e s t l a e r l u l
h t l l t l

Mercury (element)

Mercury (planet)

Mercury battery

r

Circuit electronic

Circuit breaker

H p h e d t m a l p l a b e t e l a l e w l
f r e n g l

Animal virus

Animal feed composition

M t o f t l l r t l s t n l l l f h
t f u l f f r l t f r m a t n F
l l t a l b l l p l c l t t n t h r e l r l l d
f t l l t l a r t l e (a n l a t l l t l e
f s t h e t c l) B l l a p l p l l
a t t h d o f t l r t m a t t n l f
m a y o t o n n l a t l
A l t f n t a l n l n m e f t c n t l t t
t h E l p e l t b e f t n l v o l u m e l o T h
l t l l p m t q u k l t f a t o f t l l
n t l a f t e r a t l l m m l t l f l l t l
l t a o l l t f e n c l p l a n t b u t r w t l
t l f l l t d t h t u l s f a t e l e e h l a
t n f t h E n l p l

(LEFT) Photomicrograph of glass crystals (Bureau of Standards) (RIGHT) *Paramecium caudatum* in conjugation (photograph by R. Vishniac)

McCRAW HILL ENCYCLOPEDIA OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY
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McGraw-Hill Encyclopedia of Science and Technology

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1

Th wild goat f the Old W ld C p a b x fo nd
mth high ky mo nta n u regi n of Asia
No th Afr a nd Eu pe It a mewhat mo e
lock ly b lt a d ho ter legged than the chamo
(s e CHAMOIS) B th e e ha l ng hea y urv
g horns whch m y reach a l ngth of 56 in on a
ld b ck The mal m y w gh a much a 200
lb th e s m wt tghte

The ear-umbrelated species in Siberia
the Himalaya mountains. A. abis and A. by
all of which are sought by hunters both for food
and for their hides. See ARTIODACTYL. GOAT

lbs

A n me ppl d to erta n lo gged he nlike
b d b lo gng t th fam l s Co d a d
Thr k orn th dae furthe h ra t ied by d wn
c rved blls d h ghly gr gar a h bts. Th
ood b My t mern f th outh n
Co t l Plan f the Unted State t rk be
l ng g t the f mly Co a dae nd d st n
g h d f m ll t ue h by the l k of fe thers
n t h d ft a terrest i feed r

Th tr b e f e d r n e h l l w w t e n
both l d a d m h a b i t a t e t n g f i h s
f g n k d c r t a c e n T h e y n t i n o l o



Th wh e-l ed gl y b Pl g d h h f gth t
26 m (F m E L P Im F ldb k f N t 7 H st ry
McG -H) 1949)

n1 s omet mes n very l rge number in cypres
 d other swamp tree Two spe ies are thern
 found p marly in Fl rida the ar the white
 bi *E do mus alb s* nd the European gl sy
 ibi *Pl gadus falci ellus* The white fa ed gl y
 ibi *P chihu* occurs fr m O egon outhward into
 T xas nd M xic The last two pe ie are br n
 c l d th thers white See Cico upon res

[J O E]

A food product is a frozen mixture of milk products and filling made smooth by stirring during freezing. Commercial ice cream ares in composition depend largely on taste law. The usual fat content is 10-14% and the nonfat milk solid average about 10.5%. Sweetness is supplied by cane or beet sugar (sucrose) to the amount of 15%. This is supplemented with cream or dextrose and corn syrup. To protect ice cream against heat checks during marketing 0.2-0.4% of monodistilled alcohol such as gelatin or vegetable gum is added. Also 0.1-0.2% of an emulsifier such as mono diglyceride.

Ice cream manufacture Commercial ice cream is always made from pasteurized and homogenized milk. Both batch and continuous freezers are used. Usually the holding system (68-71°F) for 30 min) for pasteurization is employed. High temperature short time treatments that make possible the flow web guided by means of the lagrants by 1958. In using such methods, temperature as high as 110°C with a few seconds hold time are used. The higher temperature speeds the growth of the whey proteins and a better body is formed and a smooth texture is obtained. The method of making the delicate flavor of the milk products.

At fi t the feez gwa done i bat h machi e
b t c nt n us fr enng ha alm st nu ely r
pl c d the l m th d Th o tin u pr
t n i m fl ient and p du e n i e cr am
with a m th r text a b d dy Cont nuo s
fr e e s t r y n c p ac ty fr m 85 to 300 gal per
h u N m o s s la o e added t ice r am Th
m t e mm s v lla Ch l t tr w b rry
b tter pec n p h c ff d dy lo are
p ular

The first group is a simple porridge
 of the commonest terms of the
 100 errors in the old form of the
 which do not appear in the new
 which have been added. Some of the

overrun to 100% other place a legal minimum on the weight of the milk solids contained in a unit volume of the ice cream. Ice cream is hardened by passing it through freezing tunnel or by placing it in low temperature (-28.9°C) room where the air is usually circulated to facilitate heat transfer.

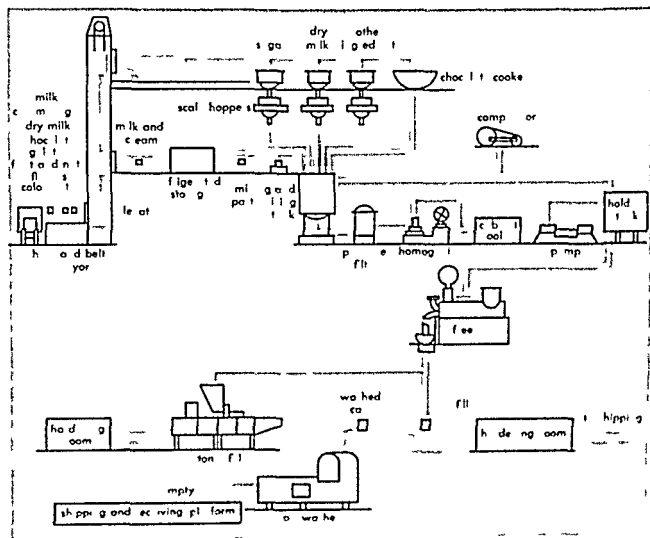
During World War II the shortage of milk fat led to the consideration of vegetable oil in the manufacture of frozen dessert. The oil commonly used are cotton seed, coconut and soybean. The use of the vegetable oils for this purpose is illegal in some states but others permit their use if the frozen product is properly labeled. Manufacturer in Texas a leading state in the use of vegetable oils in frozen dessert coined the name Mellorine for such product. There are certain economic advantage in the use of vegetable oil in place of milk fat.

Ice milk. In the period prior to World War II considerable interest was shown by consumer in a low fat frozen product which came to be called ice milk. The product varies in fat content from 3% in nonfat milk solids from 11-14% and in sugar

from 12-15%. It is sold either hard in the same manner as ice cream or soft directly from the freezer. The lower fat and higher protein content of ice milk appeal to the diet-conscious consumer and the relatively lower price is an added feature. [Pitt]

ICE CREAM MICROBIOLOGY

Sources of microorganisms. The cream condensed and dry milk product, egg product, sugar, stabilizer, flavoring and coloring material and fruit and nuts used as ingredient in ice cream may be contaminated with microorganisms. Therefore the ice cream mix must be pasteurized before freezing because a low temperature in itself is not sufficient to kill microorganisms. Other possible sources of microorganisms are equipment and utensils used in manufacture, cooling and dipping vendor employee and air. Stringent regulations must be established for all manipulation of ice cream from producer to consumer in order to avoid recontamination especially with regard to pathogen. Once incorporated microorganisms will survive a long time in ice cream. This can be seen



Flow sheet of ice cream manufacture (from Food Industry S.C.P. and A.D.B.E.P. for Food Technology, McGraw-Hill, 1937)

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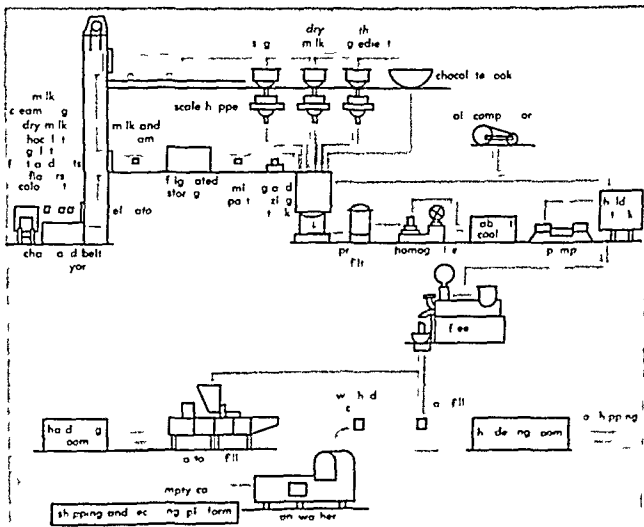
Ice milk. In the period prior to World War II considerable interest was shown by consumers in a low fat frozen product which came to be called ice milk. The product varies in fat content from 3-6% in nonfat milk solids from 11-14% and in sugar

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[F H T]

ICE CREAM MICROBIOLOGY

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get on m imp tan i th m nuf tr
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bo ts, f h and m at p cking plants a d da ri
Th N t al Asso iation f le I dustr ear p rted
th U S e p d c t i o n i 19 7 5 23 950,550 i
(shued at \$223,268 067) ompared to 3 233 966
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hed w th devel pment f th a t m t h i e
hold e f g r t r

M s t c s m d in galvanzed that a e
p r i a l l y i m m e d b n n a n i c e m k n g t k
(Fig 1) B i e m a d f s o d m c h l r d e o r c i
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m i a t h e e f t e r t e a p t i n p p e o i l s o r
b r i c o o l e s b m e r g e d n t h c e t a k The c e
s f i l l e d w i t h r a w w a t e t e t e d w t r f
n t n t l y c n t a s l a r g m t f i m p u r t e
Th w t r i s u l l y p e c l e d C l d l i e c
l a t e s d t h e i c e a s t f e e t h w t h C o m
m r l s e s f o n n 300- r 400-lb b l o k s f r
w h i h t h e f e e n g t m w i t h b i t 12 F i f r o m
38 t 4 h u r F e e z i n g t m e d e p n d s l a r g l y n
t h e t h k e o f t h i a k e a d i f b r i n e t m p e r
t u e f n l g p l a t n e a r r a n g e d g o u p
f m e s f h r v e t g s m a y 34 a a t t m
A t r a v e l i n g c r n e p k p a f z e n g r u p t n s p o t
n d d r p t i t d p t n k f r t h a w g t h e n
m e s t t d u m p w h e t h e c a k e s s l i d e
o t d i t t g e o o m Th e m p t y c n a r e
f i l l e d w i t h f r e s h w a t e d a e e t r n e d t o t h e c e
t n k b y t h r e

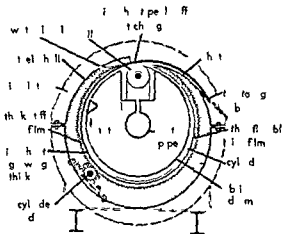


Fig 2 C mm i f k m h

I f l e a r i e i s r q u i d t h e w t r i n e a c h c a n
m t b e a g i t e d w t h a d u r i n g f r e z i n g t h r
w i e p a q u e i f o m e d B c a i t h e w a t e m t
b e o l e d t o 32 F b e f r e f r e z i n g c a n s t a r t n d b
c a e o f s y s t m l o a b t 16 t o n s o f r e f r i g e r a
t i s r q u e t m a k 1 t o n o f i e w h n t h r a w
w a t e r e n t r s a t 0 F

The m n u f a c t r e f i e n l i b f l a k e o r c u b
f m b y o t n u s i c m k e s (Fig 2) h a s t a k e n
e r l a g p r t i n f t h e c o m m i l m r k e t i n
r e n t y e r A l o m a l l f l v a u t m t e e l f c o n
t a i n e d c u b e a n d B k e s c m k e r s h i b e n d e l
o p e d f u e i s t r a n t h t e l c l u b s a n d h s
p t a l

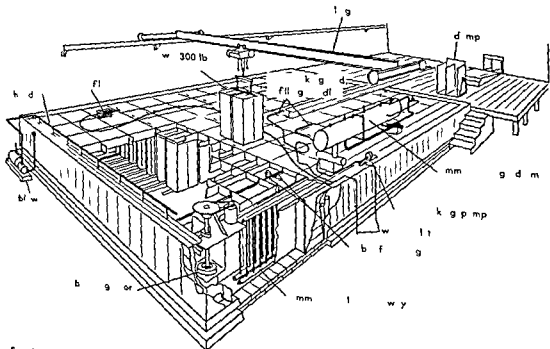


Fig 1 Typ 1 i p l t (W r h g f P m p d M h e y C p)

Ice island

Major studies of floating ice in the Arctic Ocean from 100 to 200 ft thick irregular in shape and from a few square mile to 300 square miles in area. Ice islands originate in the land fast ice along the high latitude northern shores of the Canadian archipelago and Greenland. The unbroken appearance of the island in great contrast to the surrounding pack ice which normally almost completely cover the Arctic Ocean and which attain a maximum thickness of only 20 ft. It was the unbroken appearance and the elevation of the island above the pack ice that first attracted the attention of the crew of U.S. Air Force weather reconnaissance planes in 1946 (Fig. 1). Since that time over 80 ice islands have been observed all but a half dozen or so lying in the numerous lav and trails of the Canadian archipelago.

Character and formation. Ice islands are characterized by (1) absence of pre-ice ridge such as are found in the pack ice, (2) long shallow drainage channels most evident in summer when they are filled with meltwater, and (3) the presence of dust and dirt layers in the ice as well as occasional rock on the surface and remnant of plant and animal material which testify to close proximity to land at some time.

An ice shelf (a floating body of land fast ice) 60 miles by 10 miles in area located between McClintock and Markham Bay on Northern Ellesmere Island. It has been quite extensively studied and has been found to be similar in all respects to the ice island. In August 1947 an aerial photograph was obtained of the eastern half of this shelf with a large piece of ice nearly which had broken from it. This piece later moved out into the Arctic Ocean to become a floating ice island. Other large portions are moving from the shelf since it was first visited by C. S. Nares in 1856 and R. F. Leary in 1906.

The ice island probably break from the shelf during year of generally warm Arctic climate such as the period 1900-1930. The age and period of growth of the land fast ice along the eastern

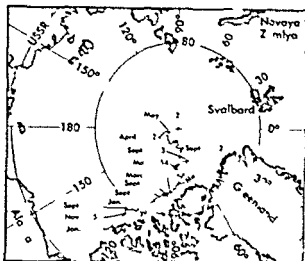


Fig. 2 Drift of Fletcher's Ice Island T-3 during its period of occupancy (USAF Cambridge Research Center, Mass.)

into ice a thick as the ice island can be measured in hundred of year and depend on the general climatic condition.

Scientific endeavor. In March 1955 a landing was made on one of the ice islands designated T-3 (T for radar target) or Fletcher's Ice Island T-3. C. I. O. Fletcher who was in charge of the first operation there. This island was occupied from March 1955 to May 1955, April 1955 to September 1955 and continuously in April 1955. In 1959 a landing was also made on T-1 the first island discovered and largest of the known ice islands but no permanent facilities were installed. In 1959 the USSR located one of its North Pole stations on what is evidently one of the ice islands.

The ice islands are excellent platforms for Arctic scientific study. Once away from the land at sea the islands are moved at speed up to 10 miles per day by the wind in an erratic course that takes them clockwise around the Arctic basin from Ellesmere Island toward the eastern tip of Alaska and eastern Siberia and from there westward to the Bering Sea. From this area they may move back to Ellesmere forming a circular path of 2000 or 3000 miles which could repeat at 15 years or they may move from the polar area into the Arctic Ocean in any way to the Greenland Sea in which a slow circulation still exists and eventually melt and graze. The impact of the ice islands on the Arctic climate is a matter of great interest and is being studied by the U.S. Navy and the U.S. Air Force.

Photography. H. Landberg (ed.) 41. *Photography of the Arctic*. U.S. Navy and U.S. Air Force. *Arctic and Antarctic*. 1950. 120 p.

Ice manufacture

Commercial production of ice for use in the Arctic region is being considered. The U.S. Navy and U.S. Air Force are studying the possibility of using ice for the construction of ice islands.



Fig. 1 U.S. Air Force photograph of Ice Island T-3 (Official photograph USAF Cambridge Research Center, Mass.)

g t st nom c imp rtan e s the m nufa tu
of w ters e fr u i r fig rat r car f hing
boats, f h and meat p k i pl ts a d da i
The N t n al A or at n of l e Indu tries r p r t d
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(l e d at \$223 268 067) c mp e d to 32 233 966
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f i t t h r a t o f a l m t 2 000 000 ton a y r a s
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i c e m a k e t s Th d m e s t i c e m a k e t p a c t a l l y
r h e d w t h d e v e l o p m e n t o f t h e a u t o m a t c h o i e
h l d e f g a t o r

M o s t c i m d e i n g a l a z e d c n t h t r
p a r t a l l y i m m e d b i e i n a n i e m a k i n g t n k
(F g 1) B r n e m a d f d u m c h l o i d e a l
c m h l d e s u d Th b i n e i s c o o l e d b y m
m s t h r f r i g r a n t e v a p r t s i p p l r
b r i e c o o l e r s i m e g e d i n t h e c t a n k Th c
a a e f i l l e d w t h a w w a t e o t r e t e d w t r f
i t i t a l l y c o n t a n l g e a m u t o f i m p u t i e s
Th w t e r s a l l y p e c o l e d C o l d b r n c r e u
l a t e s u n d t h e i t o f e z e t h e w a t e r C o m
m e r t i e s f o e n 300- o 400-lb b l o k f o r
w h h t h f e e z i n g t i m w t h b a t 12 F s f r o m
38 t o 49 F F e z i n g t i m d e p e n d s l r g e l y n
t h t h i k e s o f t h i a k a n d t h b e t m p r
t u e l l g p i n t e n a r r a n g e d i n g o p
f r a m e f o h a r v t i g m a y 34 a n t t i m e
A t r a l g e n p c k p f g r o u p t a n s
p o r t a d d r i t s t d p t a k f o t h a w g t h
m e s t t o a n d m p w h e t h e c a k e s l d
t a d i n t i a g r o m Th m p t y n a e
r f i l l e d w t h f r i w a t a n d a e r e t u r n e d t o t h i
i k b y t h e n

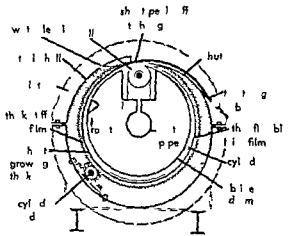


Fig 2 C mm i f l k e m o h e

I f l e r i e i s r e q u i r e d t h w a t e r i n e s h e n
m u s t b e a g i t e d w t h a r d u r i n g f r e e z i n g t h e r
w i e p a q i e i s f i r m e d B e a u t h w a t e r m t
l o l e d t o 39 F b t r e f e e z i n g c a n s t a r t a n d b
e u e o f s y t m l e s a b o u t 16 t s o f r e f r i g e r a
t o r e q u i r e t o m a k e 1 t o n o f i c e w h n t h e r a w
w a t e e t e r s a t 70 F

T h m f a c t u f i c i n l s h f l a k e r c u b e
f o r m b y n t n u u i e m a k e r (F i g 2) h a s t a k e n
v e a l r g p o r t i n f i t h e m m r e l m a r k e t i
r e c e n t y e r A l m a l l i f l y i m a t c e l l c o n
t a n e d u b e n d f l a k i e m a k e r s h a e b e e n d e l
o p e d f o u e n e t a u r a t s h o t e l s l b a n d h o s
p t a l

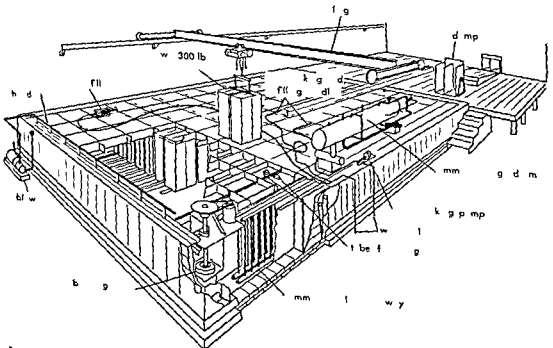


Fig 1 Typ 1 ic pl (W r h g t P m p d M h r y C p)

glaciated the Jechavn Glacier at latitude 68 N
calving about 1400 bergs yearly and the largest is
the Humboldt Glacier at latitude 69 with an area
ward front extending 65 miles. The remainder of
the Arctic belongs to some firm East Greenland
and the inland icecap of Ellesmere Island and
Spitzbergen, and Novaya Zemlya with almost no
bleberg produced along the Eurasian or Alaskan
Arctic coast. No icebergs are discharged into
the North Pacific Ocean from its adjacent seas
except a few small bergs which are thought to come
from the piedmont glaciers along the coast of Alaska.
The heavy no-glacier drift of the Arctic
OCEAN ATLANTIC OCEAN

Ocean currents of the Arctic and adjacent seas
determine the distribution of icebergs. The
icebergs drift from the Arctic to the Atlantic
along the coast of Greenland. The dominant drift
the East Greenland current thenceward to the
tip of Iceland and thence northward along the
coast of the Hebrides drifts bergs in the main
body of West Greenland berg drift in a north-
westward gyral across Davis Strait and Baffin
Bay. The bergs then drift southward along the
coast of Baffin Island, Labrador, and Newfoundland
land by the Labrador Current. The drift termi-
nates at the Grand Banks of Newfoundland
where the water of the Labrador Current mixes
with the Gulf Stream and the large icebergs
melt within a few days. Freck icebergs
drift have been reported which are moving
fast and were hauled off Scotland. No Scot-
land bergs are known in the Atlantic. The
bergs are extremely rare about 400
bergs a year are reported from Newfoundland and



Fig 2 Arctic berg has been drifted from
valley dry-dock type. Submerged icebergs
may be found to the glacially produced icebergs
North of the British Isles. The icebergs
are drifting to the west.

survivor of the limited 3-year journey from
West Greenland. The remainder become stranded
along Arctic coasts and are ultimately
destroyed by wave action and melting.

Icebergs in the Northern Hemisphere rarely
reach proportions larger than 2000 ft in breadth or
400 ft in height above the water (Fig 2). How-
ever, the great ice islands of the Arctic in extent
are occasionally found and have even served as
floating bases for scientific studies. The origin
of these rare counterparts of the common Antarctic
type is uncertain, but they might be an ice shelf
along northern Ellesmere Island. ICE ISLAND

Antarctic icebergs of the Southern Ocean are
originally from the giant ice shelves all along the

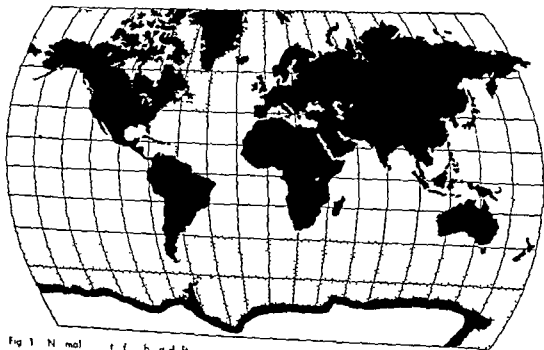


Fig 1 Northern Hemisphere distribution

Ice is also frozen artificially in a flat horizontal sheet for ice skating. Such skating rink may be in door or outdoor permanent or portable. The rink floor is covered with pipe coils through which cold brine is circulated and over which water is sprayed until a frozen sheet $1\frac{1}{2}$ in thick is obtained. The brine is cooled in brine coolers by a refrigerant such as ammonia or Freon 12. See REFRIGERATION.

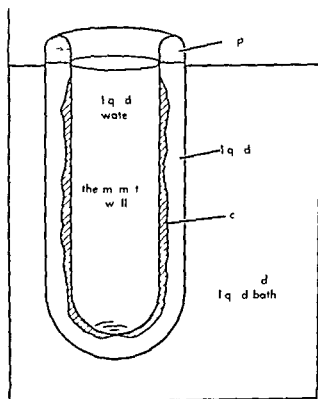
[H M H F]

Bibliography American Society of Heating Refrigerating and Air Conditioning Engineers ASRE Air Conditioning and Refrigerating Data Book 1956-1959

Ice point

The temperature at which liquid and solid water are in equilibrium under atmospheric pressure. The ice point is by far the most important fixed point for defining temperature scales and for calibrating thermometers (see TEMPERATURE). A closely related point is the triple point where liquid, solid and gaseous water are in equilibrium. It is 0.01° higher on the Kelvin scale than the ice point (see TRIPLE POINT). The triple point has gained favor as the primary standard since it can be attained with great accuracy in a simple closed vessel isolated from the atmosphere. Readings are reproducible to about 0.0001°K but dissolved gases or other foreign matter may raise the error to 0.001° or more.

The triple point apparatus shown in the figure consists of a thermometer well that is filled with liquid water and jacketed by a cavity containing the three phases of water under a pressure of about



Arrangement for determining triple point

0.006 atmosphere. The ice initially deposited by prechilling the well melts during the process of heat transfer from the thermometer. [R A B L]

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Iceberg

A large mass of glacial ice broken off and drifted from parent glaciers or ice shelves along polar sea. Icebergs should be distinguished from polar pack ice which is sea ice or frozen sea water though rafted or hummocked fragments of the latter may resemble small berg. See GLACIER SEA ICE.

Characteristics and types The continental or inland icecaps of both Arctic and Antarctic regions produce icebergs where the icecaps extend to the sea in the form of glaciers or ice shelves. The "calving" of a large iceberg is one of nature's greatest spectacles if one considers that a Greenland berg may weigh over 1,000,000 tons and Antarctic bergs are many times larger. The glacial ice of which an iceberg consists is compressed now having a variable specific gravity which averages about 0.89. This results in an above water mass of from one eighth to one tenth of the entire mass. However, pines and peaks of an eroded or weathered berg will result in height to depth ratios of between 1-6 and 1-3. Tritium age experiments with melted Greenland berg ice indicate the icebergs may be of the order of 50,000 years old. Minute air bubbles imprisoned in glacial ice impart to bergs a snow white color and cause it to effervesce when immersed. See SEA WATER, TRITIUM.

Icebergs are classified by shape and size. The terms used are arched, blocky, dome, pinnacled, tabular, valley and weathered for berg fragments ranging smaller than cottage size above water. The life span of an iceberg may be indefinite while the bergs remain in cold polar waters eroding only lightly during summer months. But under the influence of ocean current, an iceberg that drifts into warmer water will disintegrate rapidly, its life being measured in weeks in sea temperature between 10°F and 50°F and in days in sea temperature over 50°F . A notable feature of icebergs is their long and distant drift which may carry them into steamship tracks where they become a hazard to navigation. The normal extent of iceberg drift is shown by the accompanying world chart (Fig 1).

Arctic icebergs In the Arctic, icebergs originate chiefly from glaciers along Greenland coast. It is estimated that a total of about 10,000 bergs are calved annually in the Northern Hemisphere of which over 90% are of Greenland origin. But only about half of the calve ever recur close enough to enable them to achieve any significant drift. The majority of the latter term from the Dogsbay along the west coast of Greenland between the 60th and 80th parallel of latitude. The most productive

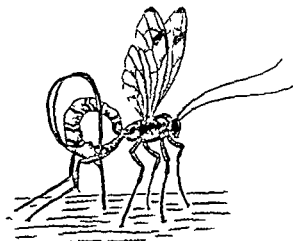


Fig 3 Antarctic iceberg Tabular type berg or ice island is common to all regions of the Antarctic seas. Some of these bergs may reach over 100 miles in length. The U.S. Coast Guard icebreaker Westwind is shown in the foreground.

Antarctic continent. The result is huge tabular bergs (Fig 3) or ice islands several hundred feet high and often over a hundred miles in length which frequent the entire waters of the Antarctic seas. The most active iceberg producing region are the Ross and Filchner ice shelves in the Ross and Weddell seas. The large size of the icebergs and influence of the Antarctic Circumpolar Current give them an indeterminate life span. When weathered, Antarctic icebergs attain a deep bluish hue of great beauty rarely seen in the Arctic. See ANTARCTIC OCEAN. [R.P.D.]

Ichneumon

Any member of the insect family Ichneumonidae, order Hymenoptera. Although they are frequently called ichneumon flies, they are actually wasps (see WASP). The ichneumon are a widely distributed and highly successful family. There are over 6000 species in North America. They are parasitic in insect larvae; the female deposits her



The illustration is a Megaloptera (to an ichneumon fly) le gith (em le to 174) (From E. L. Palmer Fieldbook of Natural History McGraw-Hill 1949)

egg within the body of the insect or spider host. The mean of her ovipositor, which is frequently the most prominent part of her body. The greatly developed ovipositor of some of the ichneumon is as much as 6 in long on one species frequently cause people to be frightened by the harmless insect. They are beneficial in helping control the populations of harmful insects. Virtually every known species of insect is attacked by some species of ichneumon. See HYMENOPTERA. [J.D.B.]

Ichthyopterygia

Predatory fish finned and sea swimming reptile of the Mesozoic Era widely divergent from land forms, although surely descended from some ancient terrestrial group, a yet unrecognized. All are much alike in body form, short-necked, streamlined, swordfish-like or porpoise-like in body, yet unrelated to either fishes or porpoises, a noteworthy example of convergence in evolution. A single order is included in this subclass. See ICHTHYOSAURIA. [C.L.C.]

Ichthyornis

A genus of fossil bird of Late Cretaceous age known from a species from the Niobrara formation of western Kansas and one species from the lower bed in Texas. The fossil from the family Ichthyornithidae and with the related Apatornis (see MARINE) family Apatornithidae, the order Ichthyornithiformes (subclass Neornithes). They differ from all other birds except the Archaeopteryx in having the centra of the dorsal vertebrae with each end concave (amphicelous). Ichthyornis and Apatornis were pigeon-sized flying birds with well-developed wings and keeled breastbone. When first described by O. Marsh, part of jaw-bearing teeth in socket were associated with the therapsid, so that for many years they were known as the birds. In 1952, however, J. T. Gregory found evidence of the original material in the Peabody Museum, Yale University, and that the jaw fragment was not a bird but it was from reptilian material. See ARCHAEOPTERYX AND ASSES TO THE ICHTHYORNITHIFORMES. [A.W.]

Ichthyornithes

One of the three major groups of the class Neornithes, the true birds. The family Ichthyornithidae was until recently placed in the order Ichthyornithiformes in the superorder Ornithoglossa, on the belief that Ichthyornis was a therapsid. J. T. Gregory, however, found that the third jaw bone, the Ichthyornis was a reptilian. It is now placed in the order Ichthyornithes near the Ichthyornithes. However, Ichthyornis is still a fossil bird in position, having been established as a separate group at the top of the ordinal level. The eight known species of Ichthyornithes are all from the Upper Cretaceous of Kansas and in the Texas. They were flying birds, but not a single fossil in their proportion. See ARCHAEOPTERYX. [A.W.]

grow rapidly but imperfectly to form skeletal crystals (Fig 1)

In most rocks grain shape is controlled largely by sequence of mineral crystallization and the nature of activity of associated minerals. A gain is said to be euhedral if bound by its characteristic crystal faces and anhedral if crystal faces are absent. Intermediate forms are subhedral. Crystals developed early in a magma tend to be euhedral. Late crystals have more interference from more adjacent grains and are referred to as an irregular mutual boundaries.

It is not necessary that all mutually interfering grains develop anhedral form. Some mineral species are so great power for growth (a grain forms energy) and are capable of maintaining their characteristic crystal form in competition with different minerals.

Metagene rocks show a granular or granular texture in which the majority of crystals are roughly equidimensional. Rarely grains with euhedral outlines dominate and the rock an idiomorphic granular texture. More commonly nearly all grains are anhedral and the rock texture is albitic granular. Metagene rocks show an intermediate idiomorphic granular texture (Fig 2).

Porphyritic texture The grain size of some igneous rocks is extremely uniform (e.g. granular texture) but that of others may be highly irregular. Rock in which relatively large crystals (phenocrysts) are dispersed in a matrix of groundmass of finer grained glassy material is said to be porphyritic (Fig 3). Porphyritic glasses are abundant in pyroclastic rocks especially in ash.

Porphyritic rocks may form in number of ways (1) Phenocrysts may grow rapidly and slowly while the magma was slowly cooled. The groundmass may have long led later from the magma was rapidly cooled. (2) Phenocrysts in many rocks (metagene) may develop late and still attain large

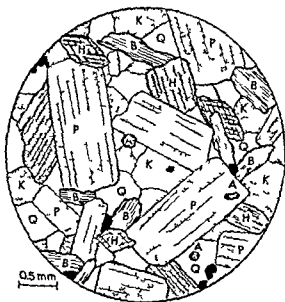


Fig 2 Hypomorphic texture in gabbro. (P) Euhedral plagioclase (H) biotite (B) hornblende (Q) quartz (K) alkali feldspar (A) anorthoclase (L) lathwork (black)

dmen on if their growth is sufficiently greater than that of adjacent mineral (3) The large crystals of some plutonic rocks are probably more or less idiomorphic. They may have formed essentially in the rock from the solidifying magma (4) Large crystals in many rocks (e.g. in pyroclastic and lamprophyres) may not be indigenous. They may have been incorporated during intrusion of the magma (5) Phenocrysts may develop by exsolution or by dissolution of superheated magma. See LAMPROPHYRE PHENOCRYST PORPHYRY

Plutonic texture The texture involves numerous small grains of mineral and more or less included by irregular large crystals of another

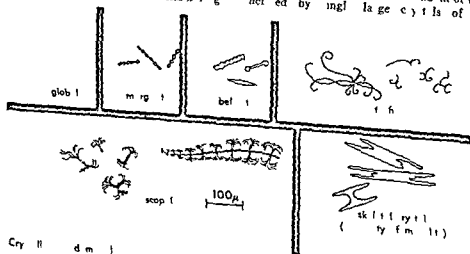
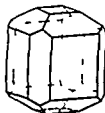


Fig 3 Crystal morphology

Idocrase

A silicate mineral of complex composition crystallizing in the tetragonal system and known by the name vesuvianite. Crystals frequently well formed are usually prismatic with pyramidal terminations. It commonly occurs in columnar aggregates but may be granular or massive. The luster is vitreous to resinous; the color is usually green or brown but may be yellow, blue or red. Hardness is 6½ on Mohs scale; specific gravity is 3.35–3.45. See SILICATE MINERALS.



Prismatic crystals of mineral idocrase showing pyramidal terminations. (From C. S. Hurlbut Jr. *Determinative Mineralogy*, 16th ed. Wiley, 1952).

The composition of idocrase is expressed by the formula $\text{Ca}_2\text{Al}(\text{Mg}, \text{Fe})\text{Si}_2\text{O}_7(\text{OH})_2$. Magnesium and ferrous iron are present in varying amounts and boron or fluorine is found in some varieties. Beryllium has been reported in small amounts.

Idocrase is found characteristically in crystalline limestones resulting from contact metamorphism. It is there associated with other contact minerals such as garnet, diopside, wollastonite and tourmaline. Noted localities are Zermatt, Switzerland; Christiansand, Norway; River Vilui, Siberia; and Chiapas, Mexico. In the United States it is found at Sanford, Maine; Franklin, New Jersey; Amity, New York; and at many contact metamorphic deposits in western state. A compact green variety resembling jade is found in California and is called californite. [C. S. HURBUT]

Igneous rocks

The rocks which have congealed from a molten mass. They may be composed of crystals and/or both depending on the conditions of formation. The molten matter from which they come is called magma, where erupted to the surface it is commonly known as lava. Solidification of the hot rock melt occurs in response to loss of heat. Generated at depth the magma tends to rise. It commonly breaks through the earth's crust and spills out on the earth's surface or ocean floor to form volcanic or extrusive rocks. At the surface where cooling is rapid, fine-grained or glassy rocks are formed.

Where unable to reach the surface, magma cools more slowly, infiltrated by the overlying rocks, and a coarse texture develops. The resulting igneous rock appears intrusive relative to adjacent rock. In general, deeply formed (plutonic) rocks display

the coarsest texture. Igneous rocks formed at shallow depths (hypabyssal) display features somewhat intermediate between those of volcanic and plutonic types. See MAGMA, PLUTON, VOLCANO, VOLCANOLOGY.

Textures of igneous rocks. Texture refers to the mutual relation of the rock constituents within a uniform aggregate. It is dependent upon the relative amounts of crystalline and amorphous (glassy) matter as well as the size, shape and arrangement of the constituents.

Rock textures are highly significant; they shed light on the problem of rock genesis and tell much about the conditions and environment under which the rock formed.

Crystallinity. This property expresses the proportion of crystalline to amorphous material in an igneous rock. Most igneous rocks, such as granite, are composed entirely of crystalline material and are called holocrystalline. Entirely glassy or holohyaline rocks such as obsidian are extremely rare. Many rocks such as rhyolite or vitrophyre contain both glass and crystals and are called hypocrystalline or hypohyaline.

Glass may be considered an amorphous solid with no systematic arrangement of its constituent atoms. Crystals form as the temperature of a magma falls and atoms begin to arrange themselves into orderly repetitive groups. With rapid cooling there may be no opportunity for crystals to develop and a magma will congeal as glass.

Granularity or grain size. In igneous rock, grain size ranges widely and depends in large part upon rate of cooling. Rocks are phaneric or phanocrystalline if their constituent mineral grains can be distinguished as individual entities by the naked eye. All other igneous rocks are aphanitic.

Pphanitic rocks are divided according to average grain diameter as follows: fine-grained grains less than 1 mm; medium-grained grains 1–5 mm; coarse-grained grains 5–30 mm; very coarse-grained (pegmatitic) grains more than 3 cm.

Aphanitic rocks are microcrystalline if individual constituents can be distinguished only with the microscope. They are cryptocrystalline if constituents are submicroscopically crystalline. Diminutively glassy rocks are considered aphanitic. Aphanitic rocks, rich in light-colored (felsic) minerals, are termed felsitic. See FELSITITE.

Crain shape. In igneous rock, grain shape is controlled by many factors. In highly glassy rocks, the rate of growth is important. Crystals (Fig. 1) are the most rudimentary form and are found in glassy rocks in which rapid crystallization is retarded rather than growth. They are too small to be large and cannot be identified as a particular species. The euhedral crystals are large and are arranged beautifully displayed in the glassy rock patch tone. See OBSIDIAN.

Microcline are slightly larger and elongated crystals. They appear light and can usually be identified specifically under the microscope. Many feldspar

grow rapidly but impeded to form skeletal crystal (Fig 1)

In most rocks, grains have contained largely by quench of mineral crystallization and the latter and a type of associated mineral. A grain is said to be euhedral if bounded by its characteristic crystal faces and anhedral if crystal faces are absent. Intermediate forms are subhedral. Crystals developed early in a magma tend to be euhedral. Later crystals however meet interference from numerous adjacent grains and are forced to a sum of irregular mutual boundaries.

It is not necessary that all mutually interlocking grains develop a hedral form. Some mineral species possess a greater power of growth (greater form energy) and are capable of maintaining their characteristic crystal form in competition with adjacent minerals.

Most igneous rocks show a granular texture in which the majority of crystals are roughly equidimensional. Randomly grains will be developed in a dimension and growth rate an idiomorphic granular texture. More commonly nearly all grains are anhedral and the rock texture is allotropic granular. Most rocks show an intermediate or hypomorphic granular texture (Fig 2).

Polymorphic texture. The grains of some igneous rocks exist in one form (equigranular texture) but that of the may be highly inequigranular in which relatively large crystals (phenocrysts) are dispersed in a matrix groundmass of finer grained crystalline material. This is polymorphic texture (Fig 3). Polymorphic textures are characteristic of many igneous rocks, especially those which are highly crystalline.

Polymorphic texture may be a number of ways (1) Phenocrysts may grow early and slowly while the magma was developing. The groundmass may have crystallized later after the magma was ruptured by high level when rapid cooling occurred. (2) Phenocrysts in many rocks (commonly in mylonite) and still attain large

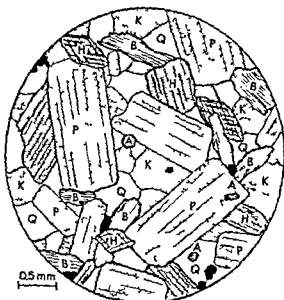


Fig 2 Hypomorphic crystallization. (K) Euhedral plagioclase (P) subhedral hornblende (H) biotite (B) euhedral quartz (Q) idiomorphic feldspar (K) Anorthoclase (A) Clinopyroxene (C) subhedral magnetite (black)

dimensions if the growth rate is sufficiently greater than that of adjacent minerals. (3) The large crystals of some plutonic rocks are probably more properly labeled as polymorphic. They may have formed originally in old rock by recrystallization aided by residual fluid from the liquid magma. (4) Large crystals in many rocks (intrusive porphyries and lamprophyres) may not be indigenous. They may have been introduced during intrusion of the magma. (5) Phenocrysts might develop by nucleation or by direct nucleation of saturated magma. (6) LAMPROPHYRE PHENOCRYST PORPHYRY.

Polymorphic texture. This texture involves numerous small grains of one mineral and monocrystalline grains of another large crystals of another

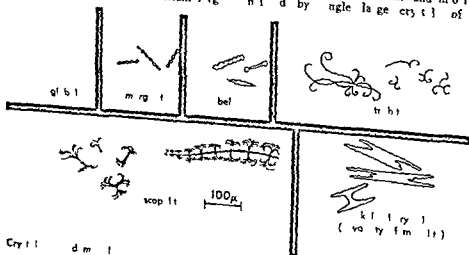


Fig 3 Crystalline texture

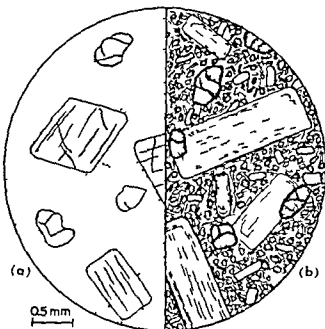


Fig 3 Porphyritic textures (a) Porphyritic rhyolite showing euhedral phenocrysts of sanidine and small crystals of quartz in a bimodal copically crystalline matrix (b) Porphyritic basalt showing euhedral phenocrysts of plagioclase and subhedral ones of a matrix of granular pyroxene and feldspar microlites

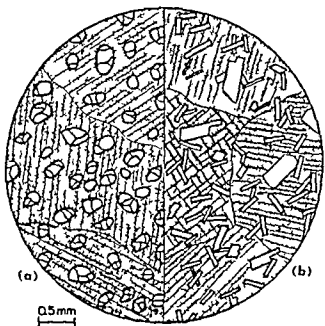


Fig 4 (a) Poikilitic texture with large crystal of hornblende enclosing small grains of olivine (b) Ophitic texture with large crystals of pyroxene enclosing small laths of plagioclase

(Fig 12) Conditions favouring development of poikilitic texture are not well understood. In some rocks this texture may have developed by direct crystallization of magma. In other rocks this texture may represent recrystallization of magmatic rock.

Ophitic texture This is a special type of poikilitic texture and is characteristic of the rock diorite (Fig 11). The texture involves lath-shaped crystal

of plagioclase enclosing large anhedral grain or plates of pyroxene (augite or pigeonite). If the length of the feldspar crystal exceeds that of the pyroxene enclosing it only partially and the texture is called ophitic. See DIABASE.

Other texture more or less related to ophitic are characteristic of very fine-grained and glassy rock of basaltic composition. See BASALT.

Implication or intergrown textures These are formed by the mutual penetration of two or more mineral phases. The intergrowth may be so intimate that one phase appears integrated into smaller grains which are isolated by the other. Within small domains however grain of one phase show optical and crystallographic continuity.

Graphic or micrographic textures may develop between almost any mineral pair where one member in euhedral form is re-emerging in reaction is enclosed by the other (Fig 5a). Micropegmatic texture is essentially a micrographic texture involving only quartz and plagioclase (Fig 5b). If the intergrowth is more varied and involves plume of fringing radial or micropegmatic pattern the texture is granophyric (Fig 5c). In myrmekitic texture plagioclase (generally oligoclase) grains enclose vermicular quartz (Fig 5d). Perthitic texture is extremely common in feldspar and takes on a wide variety of form (Fig 6). It usually consists of tiny masses of plagioclase enclosed by potash feldspar. Various proportion of the two constituents may exist. Where potash feldspar is more abundant and constitutes the host mineral the material is known as perthite. Where plagioclase predominates the material is called antiperthite.

Some implication textures may develop by simultaneous crystallization of two constituents. Other may form by exsolution in the solid state (see perthite). Still other texture may be due to the partial replacement of one mineral phase by another.

Structures of igneous rocks Structure as applied to igneous rock is a slightly confused with texture. In general however structure refers to a geometrical form or architectural feature in a rock. Structure emphasizes the heterogeneous nature of a rock or mineral aggregate. texture emphasizes homogeneity. Certain large scale structures such as a fault fold and joint are common to most rock types. They are perhaps more particularly called a geological structure. Like texture the structure of igneous rock may tell much about its history and conditions of formation and its other elements.

Linear structures The structures are common in many igneous rocks. They form within magma brought to or on the earth's surface. The low pressure permit partial relaxation of strain in the liquid water or the residual and the formation of small bubbles which may be preserved as small cavities within the magma. In highly viscous lava (rhyolite) much gas may be trapped in only tiny bubbles may form. Rajil

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Ma olt ope ing Th ar the m st omn n
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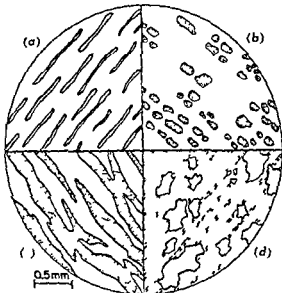


Fig 6 P r h t i t () S t g p r h t (b) P i h
 p r h t () V p e r h t (d) A t p r h t

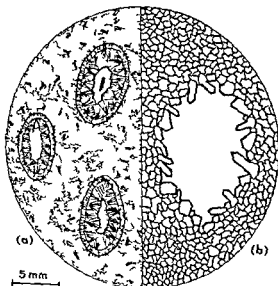


Fig 7 () Amygd lod i t h w g f m ga
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 (b) M i t y f e g d g a t w th a l l a
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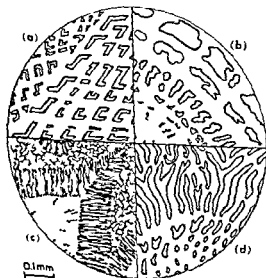


Fig 3 Impl t g w t t () M o
 p h i c t (b) M o p e g m t t e t () G o
 p h y c t u (d) Myrm k t t

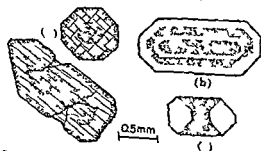


Fig 8 () Z d r y t f p y
 p l a g c l () H g l t c t (b) Z e d
 p y

boundaries may be sharp or gradational. Compositional changes from the crystals center outward may be great or slight; they may be progressive, reversed, interrupted, oscillatory, or repetitive. Zoning is characteristic of minerals belonging to solid solution series (for example plagioclase, pyroxene, and amphibole).

Numerous theories have been proposed to explain various types of zoning in minerals. They are based on physical chemical principles relating to super saturation of the magma and changes in composition, pressure, temperature, and volatile content of the magma. Movement of crystals from one part of the magma chamber to another may have been important. The most common type of zoning (progressive) appears because of incomplete reaction between solid and liquid phases during the crystallization of an immiscible series.

Hourglass structure. This structure, somewhat related to zoning, is most frequently displayed by crystals of pyroxene. Certain sections through a crystal possessing the structure have the appearance of an hourglass (Fig. 8). This structure probably demonstrates the minute differences in energy involved at different faces of a growing crystal. It may be due to selective adsorption of ions by different faces during crystal growth.

Reaction rims. The rims or zones in which one mineral envelopes another are believed to have formed by reaction and are common in some rocks (Fig. 9). They may develop by reaction between early formed crystals and surrounding magma.

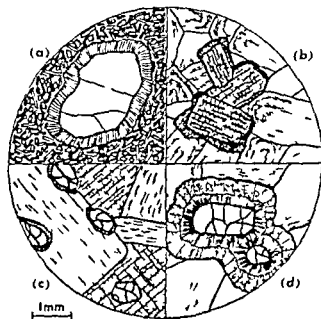


Fig. 9 (a) Reaction rim of quartz and feldspar around pyroxene in a basalt. (b) Reaction rim of hornblende and quartz around pyroxene in a diorite. (c) Reaction rim of quartz and feldspar around pyroxene in a granite. (d) Reaction rim of quartz and feldspar around pyroxene in a diorite. Scale bar = 1mm.

(pyroxene rims on early formed olivine crystals). Reaction between two incompatible minerals induced by residual fluids in the late stage of magma consolidation may produce similar effects. Pyroxene or amphibole may form a reaction around olivine crystals where they would otherwise come in contact with plagioclase. Some petrologists refer to rims of primary origin as coronas and those of secondary origin as kelyphitic borders.

Spherulites. These are radial aggregates of needlelike crystals. They are roughly spherical and usually less than a centimeter across (Fig. 10). They abound in silica-rich lava, particularly rhyolite, and are composed principally of quartz, tridymite, and alkali feldspar.

Somewhat similar aggregates in basaltic rock called varivols consist of radial plagioclase crystals with interstitial glass or granules of olivine or pyroxene.

Spherulite consisting of concentric shells with cavernous inter space are known as lithophyres or stone bubbles. In many the tiny annular cavities are lined with delicate crystals of cristobalite, quartz, and feldspar.

Inclusions or enclosures. Inclusions are common in most varieties of igneous rock. The materials of extraneous looking material vary widely in size, shape, constitution, and origin. Inclusions demonstrated to be foreign rock fragments enclosed and trapped by congealing magma or lava may be specifically designated as xenoliths. Incorporated foreign crystals are known as xenocrysts. See XENOLITH.

If an earlier consolidated portion of a magma is ruptured and fragments of it become enclosed by a portion which solidifies later, the older rock bodies are known as autoliths. Enclosures formed by selective accretion of mineral, either during or after consolidation of a magma, are termed segregations.

Orbicular structures. These structures, found in some plutonic rocks (granite, gabbro, and diorite), are orbicular masses generally up to a few inches across. They have concentric shells of different mineral composition and thickness, which may enclose xenolithic cores (Fig. 11). Most commonly dark mineral shells (rich in hornblende or pyroxene) alternate with light shells (rich in feldspar). In individual shells may be sharply or vaguely defined and the mineral within may be granular or elongate and in radial or tangential arrangement.

Orbicular structure may develop by reaction (between xenolith and magma) involving chemical reconstitution of the shell fragments, rhythmic crystallization, and xenoliths. Many orbicular structures may represent products of metamorphism and metamorphism of the host rock. See METAMORPHIC ROCK, METAMORPHISM, METAMORPHIC ROCK.

Flow or lenticular structure. This type of structure is a peculiar feature of certain lavas (the alkali feldspar). Rock exhibiting this structure appears to be composed of closely packed pillows.

haped m es up t eral feet r s Individual
p l l h a e a e fine-grained rust or margin
which arrive abundant i l commo ly ar
r nged e nc ntr lly with the p llow surface

The p llw re op f ctly fitted t gether as t
sugg t th t they we e as embled in a pl t e tat
R lat el ltl matr x cc r and it n tsc m
m nl f chert, lme tone o hale The cl e a
soc to p llow l a with ed m nt ry r ck i
in agreeme t with the pop l r belief th t th y ar
of ubaqueous origin Pill w lav s ha e b en ob
served t f rm both n dry land a d n wat r b t
the p e o dit n fa r g the r f mati n ar
tll not l n dr t od Se SPILLITE s e l o
PRECAMBRIAN

Fl u s t u t u Th i a nongenet term f r a
mber f dir ct f e t e m r o k Th t u t u e
m y b e f r med by f l w a d r n g cry tall z at on f
a magma (p r m y f l w s t u r e) f o t olidifica
t n f l w (eco dary) m y d e l p similar fea t
but the e a e c l s ed as metam rphi m i
g

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r len es of d f f e r t m n r l o t x t u e s o s t
may r ult f om parall l a g e m e t of e l o g a t e
p l t m n r l (m u h n b l e d o f l d p r)
m f l w t r u t r e o t of a b n d a t l a b b y
l u i n n l t h s m p a l l e l r e n t a t o n
Fl g e m a y b x p r e d b y f l w l e (l n e t i o n)
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Fl d l t t e and flux s t u e The e
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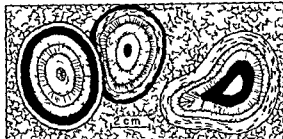


Fig 11 Ob l t c t

They ar ge erally c m p sed of th same m n r a l
s the e c l o n g o c k but in different proportions
Schli ren may repr e nt a l s e regat n drawn
ut by magma f l w Some m y b e x e olith more or
l d g e s t d and r e w r k e d by magma O t h e s m a y
e p e e t r e i d u a l m a g m a t i l q u o r s f d f f e r e n t
c m p t n n e j e c t e d i n t o a l r e d y c r y s t a l l e d p o r t i o n
S c h l e n e f o r m e d n s o l i d r c k a r e m o r e
p r p e r l y m e t m o p h i c o r m e t a o m a t i c f e a t u r e
S G R A T I Z A T I O N

B a n d i n g B a n d i n g i s e x h i b i t e d b y r o c k s c o m p
p e d f a l t e r n t i n g l a y e r f d i f f e r e n t c m p o s i t i o n
t e x t r e o r o l r The term i s m r l y d e c r i p t e
n o t g n t c I f f l o w g e s i t b e i m p l e d t h e t e r m
B w b n d n u e d

C l a s s i f i c a t i o n o f i g n e o u s r o c k s S c h m e s f o r
l a i f y i n g i g n e u o c k a r n u m e r u l i n o r t o
t h e a d e t f t h p o l r i z i n g m i c r o p e (r o u g h l y
18 0) r k l a s f i c a t i o n r e b a e d o n m e g a
p i c h r a t e s t e s m a n y f t h e m i n s l e a d n g
The y s t m w r e g d u l l y i m p e d a c h m
l a n a l y w e r e m o r e c o m m o l y e m p l o y e d

T o d a y t h p r n c p a l m e t h o d s o f c l a s s i f i c a t i o n
a u d (1) M g a c p c t m e s a r h a s d o t h
a p p e a r e f t h r k i n h a n d p e c m n n a s e n
w i t h m g n f y g g l s (h a n d l e n) S c h s h e m e s
a r f u l t h f i l d t y d o f r o k s (2) M i c o
c p i c c h e m e (l a g l y m n a l o g a l) a r e m
p l y d m l a b a t o y m e t a t n w h r e m o r e d e t
t l e d n f m t o n i s n e e d d (3) C h m c a l s c h m e s
a e e u f u l b u t h a e m o e l i m i t e d a p p l c a t i n
T h e m n e a l c n t e n t a n d t u e f a r c k g n e r a l l y
t l l m c h m o a b o t t h e o k s r g i n t h a d a
b l k h m i c l n a l y F x a m p l g r a n t e q r i z
p p h y r r h y l t e a n d o b d n m y a l l h v t h
a m e h e a l c o m p t i o n l t t h e g l o g c o n
d t s u d w h c h c h f m m a y b e r y d i f f e
e n t G r a n t s o l d f i e s l w l y a t d p t h a d u d e r
h g h p e u e The p o p l y r y m a y c r y s t a l l n t w
s t a g e s n e a t d p t h a d a l t n e a r e r t h e s r
l a e The o t h t w o k s a e f u f i c a l o g n
t h l d o l d f i s m o s t p d i y n d a g l a s s

I g n e o u c k l w g r t a t n h e m a l l y
m u n l g a l l y t e x t u a l l y n d t u t a l l y w t h
f e w i f a n y n a t a l b u n d e s Th c u n t s i
l g p a f t h g a d i a g r r n t m n g r e t r o l
g i t t h w s i g n e o u r k s b u l d b c l a s s i f i e d
The f l l o w n g s u b e c t s d p l u t o n i c l
c d h y p b y l t y p
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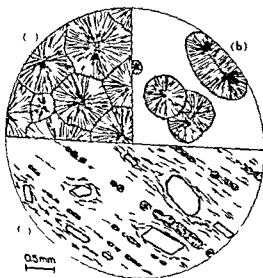


Fig 10 (a) Spherulitic structure (b) Spherulitic structure
vol pl (c) Fl d l t r u t u h w g t o f
ph f ph p e r y h u m f d r y l l t

mp is n put of th fa t that the ar at ons
with n f m les m y be gre ter th n those b twe n
fam les.

Mineral composition of igneous rocks Igneous
ock f r m g m al may be cla ed a primary
se o d ry The pr m ry min rals ar th e

formed by direct cry tallization f m the magn a
Se ondary minerals may form at a y sub quent
t me

Ess n l p m ry minerals The principal p r
mary minerals a e rel tively few and may be
l ss d as light col red (fel i) or drk col red

T bl 2 Average chemical compositions of igneous rock (fter D ly) (t tals reduced to 100%)

| Compo is | Pl to rocks | | | | | | | Nepheline syen te |
|-------------------|-------------|-------------------|----------------|-------|---------------|-------|--------|----------------------|
| | Gran t | Gras o- d o te | Quartz d it | Sy te | M n o- n t | D o t | Gabbro | |
| SiO | 0.18 | 6.01 | 61.59 | 60.19 | 56.1 | 6.7 | 49.4 | 51.63 |
| TiO | 39 | 57 | 66 | 67 | 110 | 81 | 94 | 86 |
| Al ₂ O | 14.47 | 15.94 | 16.1 | 16.8 | 16.96 | 16.67 | 17.88 | 19.89 |
| Fe ₂ O | 157 | 174 | 54 | 74 | 93 | 3.16 | 3.16 | 3.3 |
| FeO | 178 | 6 | 3.77 | 3.8 | 4.01 | 4.40 | 5.9 | 0 |
| MgO | 1 | 07 | 10 | 14 | 16 | 13 | 13 | 3 |
| MgO | 88 | 191 | 80 | 49 | 3.7 | 4.17 | 7.51 | 87 |
| CaO | 199 | 44 | 38 | 4.30 | 6.0 | 6.4 | 10.99 | 2.51 |
| N ₂ O | 3.48 | 3.0 | 3.37 | 3.98 | 3.67 | 3.39 | 5.5 | 8.5 |
| Na ₂ O | 4.11 | 7 | 10 | 4.49 | 3.76 | 1 | 89 | 46 |
| H ₂ O | 84 | 104 | 1 | 116 | 10 | 1.36 | 1.4 | 1.3 |
| P ₂ O | 19 | 0 | 6 | 8 | 47 | | 8 | |

| Compon is | Aph t ocks | | | | | | | |
|-------------------|------------|----------------|-------|----------|--------|---------|--------|-----------|
| | Rhy lite | Q tz lat te | Da te | Tra hyte | Latite | Andes t | B salt | Pl o obit |
| SiO | 80 | 6.43 | 65.68 | 60.68 | 57.6 | 59.59 | 49.06 | 57.4 |
| TiO | 33 | 8 | 57 | 38 | 1.00 | 77 | 1.36 | 41 |
| Al ₂ O | 13.49 | 16.1 | 16 | 17.4 | 16.68 | 17.31 | 15.0 | 0.60 |
| FeO | 14. | 4.04 | 38 | 64 | 9 | 3.33 | 5.38 | 3 |
| FeO | 88 | 1.0 | 1.90 | 6 | 4.0 | 3.13 | 6.37 | 1.03 |
| MgO | 08 | 09 | 06 | 06 | 10 | 18 | 31 | 13 |
| MgO | 38 | 1.4 | 1.41 | 1.1 | 3.2 | | 6.17 | 30 |
| CaO | 1.0 | 4.4 | 3.46 | 3.09 | 4 | 5.80 | 8.9 | 1.0 |
| Na ₂ O | 3.38 | 3.34 | 3.97 | 4.43 | 3.59 | 3.58 | 3.11 | 8.81 |
| Na ₂ O | 1.46 | 3 | 67 | 5.74 | 4.39 | 01 | 1.5 | 5.23 |
| H ₂ O | 1.47 | 1.90 | 1.0 | 1.6 | 91 | 1.6 | 1.6 | 0.4 |
| P ₂ O | 08 | 7 | 15 | 4 | 36 | 6 | 4 | 1 |

T bl 3 Approx im t m l ral composition of th common plut n c ock

| Rock | Pl to rals | cr | M fi min als | cr |
|-------------|--|-------|-------------------------|-------|
| Gran t | P lase m f l d pa 3-4 Sod pl groel se 0-30 Q rt 0-30 | 80-9 | Botite t nbl nd | 5-0 |
| Gran od te | P lase m f l d pa 1-3 Sod pl groel se 3-4 Q rt 1-3 | 7-90 | B t te hornbl nd | 10- |
| Q rt d rite | O l groel se ndes 5-6 Q tz 1-3 | 0-8 | H rubl d bot t pyro e | 15-30 |
| Syen t | P lase m f l d pa 0-5 P t m f l d pa 60-0 Sod pl groel se 10-0 Qu t 0-5 | 0-90 | Bot te h rubl d pyro e | 10-30 |
| M on te | P lase m f l d pa 0-30 Sod pl groel se 4-5 O t or ph l 0-5 | 60-80 | B t t hornbl nd pyro n | 15-3 |
| D n t | O l groel se des 60-0 P t m f l d pa 0-5 Q t 0-5 | 60-80 | H rubl d bot t pyrox n | 0-40 |
| C l lro | Labrad m l y t w t 0-5 P t m f l d pa 0-5 Q tz pl l no 0 | 0-40 | Pyro ne l t m l d bot t | 0 |

plutons) They form at great depth and therefore are often referred to as alysal rocks. Generated from large bodies of magma which has cooled

lowly they characteristically show a granitic
to crystalline texture.

Undersaturated conditions where confining pressure is high volatiles dissolved in the magma are retained until the last stage of crystallization. These act as fluxes and reduce the temperature of crystallization. Consequently plutonic rocks, as compared with volcanic rocks, may carry relatively low temperature mineral phases.

Volcanic rocks These are formed as lava flows or as pyroclastic rocks (heterogeneous accumulations of volcanic and extraterrestrial fragmental matter). They have a highly rapidly developed anaphanitic texture with more or less glass. Volatiles are readily lost as the lava reaches the earth's surface. The rate of crystallization tends to proceed within a relatively high temperature range. Consequently high-temperature minerals such as sanidine and high-temperature plagioclase are characteristic. Expanding gas bubbles formed by escaping volatiles frequently create highly porous rocks.

Volcanic rocks frequently show evidence of two stages of cooling: an early diapedic stage (intratuffic) and a later effusive stage. Diapedic cooling in the first stage may produce a few large crystals. These become suspended in the lava and frozen into an aphanitic matrix during the effusive stage. Thus, a unit for the rhythmic texture is commonly encountered in volcanic rocks.

Hypabyssal rocks These rocks exhibit characteristics intermediate between those of volcanic and plutonic types. They differ from volcanic rocks in that they are intrusive and generally free from glass and vesicular structures. They differ

Table 1 Classification of igneous rock families

| Felspar | | Quartz | Quartz or f 11 after the 1 (7) | N f 1 line | Leucite |
|---|--|---|---|--|--|
| Alkali f 11 par an f 11 par claw (clg claw an d 11 par) | Alk li f 11 par of f 11 felspar | Crinite (f) Rly lite (A) | Syenite (f) Tr 1 yte (A) | N f 1 line syenite (f) Tr 1 yte (A) | Leucite f 11 par (A) |
| | Alk li f 11 par of f 11 f 11 par | Crinite (f) Q nite 11 (A) | M nite (f) Leucite (A) | | |
| | Alk li f 11 par of f 11 f 11 par | Q nite 11 (f) (Tr 1 yte) D nite (A) | Di nite (f) An f nite (A) | | |
| | | | Ar nite (f) C 11 (f) Basalt (A) | Tr 1 yte (f) Tr 1 yte (A) | Leucite f 11 par (A) |
| | | | Diabase (H) | Basalt (A) | Leucite f 11 par (A) |
| | | | Tr 1 yte (f) Tr 1 yte (f) H nite 11 (f) | N f 11 nite (A) N f 11 nite Basalt (A) | Leucite f 11 par (A) Leucite Basalt (A) |

(I) Plagioclase (f) (stone) rock (A) Amphibolite (stone) rock (H) Hypocentral rock

† See I 51. ITF P NK

(A) Apt title (owner) etc

(iii) If y_1 and y_2 are

composition of the fact that the variation with field may be greater than the between fields

Mineral composition of igneous rocks Igneous rock forming minerals may be listed as primary and secondary. The primary minerals are those

formed by direct crystallization from the magma. Secondary minerals may form at any subsequent time.

Essential primary minerals The principal primary minerals are relatively few and may be classified as light colored (felsic) or dark colored

Table 2. Average chemical compositions of igneous rocks (in weight %) (totals adjusted to 100%)

| Components | Plutonic rocks | | | | | | | % pl. line syenite |
|--------------------------------|----------------|--------------|----------------|---------|-----------|---------|--------|--------------------|
| | Granite | Granodiorite | Quartz diorite | Syenite | Monzonite | Diorite | Gabbro | |
| SiO ₂ | 61.8 | 61.0 | 61.5 | 60.1 | 56.1 | 56.7 | 49.4 | 54.6 |
| TiO ₂ | 0.3 | 0.5 | 0.6 | 0.7 | 1.1 | 0.8 | 0.7 | 0.8 |
| Al ₂ O ₃ | 14.4 | 12.9 | 16.1 | 16.8 | 16.9 | 16.6 | 17.8 | 19.8 |
| Fe ₂ O ₃ | 1.5 | 1.7 | 1.1 | 1.4 | 0.9 | 3.1 | 3.1 | 3.3 |
| FeO | 1.7 | 0.6 | 3.7 | 3.8 | 4.0 | 4.4 | 5.9 | 0 |
| MnO | 1 | 0.7 | 1.0 | 1.4 | 1.6 | 1.3 | 1.3 | 3 |
| MgO | 0.8 | 1.9 | 0.8 | 0.9 | 3.7 | 1.7 | 7.5 | 8.7 |
| CaO | 1.9 | 4.4 | 5.3 | 4.3 | 6.5 | 6.4 | 10.9 | 10.1 |
| Na ₂ O | 3.4 | 3.7 | 3.3 | 3.9 | 3.6 | 3.3 | 5.5 | 8.6 |
| K ₂ O | 1.1 | 0.7 | 1.0 | 1.4 | 3.6 | 1 | 8.9 | 5.4 |
| H ₂ O | 0.4 | 1.0 | 1 | 1.6 | 1.0 | 1.3 | 1.4 | 1.3 |
| P ₂ O ₅ | 0.1 | 0 | 0.6 | 0.2 | 0.7 | | 0.8 | 0.5 |

| Components | Aphanitic rocks | | | | | | | |
|--------------------------------|-----------------|-----------|---------|----------|--------|----------|--------|-----------|
| | Rhyolite | Quartzite | Diorite | Trachyte | Latite | Andesite | Basalt | Phonolite |
| SiO ₂ | 71.8 | 61.4 | 65.6 | 60.6 | 57.6 | 59.5 | 49.0 | 57.4 |
| TiO ₂ | 0.3 | 0.8 | 0.7 | 0.8 | 1.0 | 0.7 | 1.3 | 0.4 |
| Al ₂ O ₃ | 13.4 | 16.1 | 16 | 17.4 | 16.6 | 17.3 | 15.0 | 0.6 |
| Fe ₂ O ₃ | 1.4 | 4.0 | 3.8 | 6.1 | 2.9 | 3.3 | 5.3 | 3 |
| FeO | 0.8 | 1.0 | 1.9 | 6 | 4.0 | 3.1 | 6.3 | 1.0 |
| MnO | 0.8 | 0.9 | 0.6 | 0.6 | 1.0 | 1.8 | 3.1 | 1.3 |
| MgO | 0.8 | 1.7 | 1.1 | 1.1 | 3.2 | 7 | 6.1 | 3.0 |
| CaO | 1.0 | 1.4 | 3.1 | 3.0 | 5.4 | 8.0 | 8.9 | 1.5 |
| Na ₂ O | 3.3 | 3.3 | 3.9 | 4.4 | 3.5 | 3.8 | 3.1 | 8.8 |
| K ₂ O | 1.6 | 3.7 | 6.7 | 5.7 | 4.3 | 0.1 | 1 | 5.3 |
| H ₂ O | 1.4 | 1.9 | 1.0 | 1.6 | 0.1 | 1.6 | 1.6 | 0.4 |
| P ₂ O ₅ | 0.8 | 0.7 | 1.5 | 1 | 3.6 | 6 | 4 | 1 |

Table 3. Approximate mineral composition of the common plutonic rocks

| Rock | Feldspar minerals | Crystals | Mineral | Crystals |
|----------------|---|----------|-----------------------------|----------|
| Granite | Plagioclase 30-40 Quartz 0-30 | 80-90 | Biotite hornblende | 5-10 |
| Granodiorite | Plagioclase 15-20 Quartz 0-10 | 80 | Biotite hornblende | 10- |
| Quartz diorite | Oligoclase 55-60 Quartz 15-20 | 0-80 | Hornblende biotite pyroxene | 10-30 |
| Syenite | Plagioclase 0-5 Feldspar 60-80 Oligoclase 10-20 | 0-90 | Biotite hornblende pyroxene | 10-30 |
| Monzonite | Quartz 0-5 Feldspar 0-30 Oligoclase 40-50 | 60-80 | Biotite hornblende pyroxene | 15-30 |
| Diorite | Quartz 0-5 Oligoclase 60-80 Feldspar 0-10 | 60-80 | Hornblende biotite pyroxene | 0-40 |
| Gabbro | Quartz 0-10 Feldspar 0-5 Oligoclase 0-10 | 0-40 | Pyroxene hornblende biotite | 2-5 |

(mafic) varieties. *Feldic* is a mnemonic term for feldspathic minerals (feldspar and feldspathoids) and silica (quartz, tridymite and cristobalite). *Mafic* is mnemonic for magnesium and iron rich minerals (biotite amphibole pyroxene and olivine). *Feldic* minerals are composed largely of silica, alumina and alkalis. *Mafics* are rich in iron, magnesium and calcium.

Table 3 summarizes the essential primary constituents of the more common plutonic rocks. The percentage ranges are highly generalized. Individual rock specimens may depart radically from these values, but the averages are fairly representative and useful for comparison. The mineral composition of the corresponding volcanic rocks is roughly similar to the values in the table. Major departures will be encountered particularly in the glassy rocks.

Accessory minerals. Accessory minerals are those occurring in very small or trace amounts. They consist principally of magnetite, ilmenite, pyrite, hematite, apatite, zircon, rutile and sphene. Most generally, they are widely distributed as tiny grains or crystals.

Secondary minerals. Included in this group are minerals formed by addition of material subsequent to solidification of the rock or by alteration of minerals already present in the rock. The addition of fluorine and boron, which tend to concentrate in the residual magmatic liquids, to already crystallized portions of the rock may form small crystals of fluorite, topaz or tourmaline. Alteration in which certain minerals become more or less reconstituted is common and widespread. It is generally believed to occur during the late stages of solidification, while hot residual fluids (for example, water and carbon dioxide) permeate the crystal aggregate and convert water-free silicate minerals into hydrous forms. This hydrothermal or deuteric effect may be so intense that virtually all igneous characteristics of the rock are lost. The common alteration products derived from the essential primary minerals are listed below.

| Primary mineral | Secondary mineral |
|---------------------|--|
| Quartz | Not altered |
| Orthoclase feldspar | Kaolinite, sericite |
| Plagioclase | Kaolinite, sericite (paragonite), epidote, zoisite, calcite |
| Nepheline | Cancrinite, analcite, natrolite |
| Leucite | Nepheline and orthoclase feldspar |
| Sodalite | Analcite, cancrinite |
| Biotite | Chlorite, sphene, epidote, rutile, iron oxide |
| Hornblende | Actinolite, biotite, chlorite, epidote, calcite |
| Orthopyroxene | Antigorite, actinolite, talc |
| Clinopyroxene | Hornblende, actinolite, biotite, chlorite, epidote, antigorite |
| Olivine | Serpentine, magnetite, talc, magnesite |

Density of igneous rocks. Density is a significant rock property and is a function largely of mineral

Table 4. Approximate densities of some common plutonic rocks.

| Rock | Average | Range |
|-----------|---------|-------|
| Granite | 6 | 60-73 |
| Gabbro | 1 | 6 |
| Syenite | 6 | 6-8 |
| Quartzite | 8 | 9 |
| Diorite | 8 | 7-9 |
| Chlorite | 99 | 8-31 |

erological composition and porosity. Chemical composition alone is not a reliable indication of density because different minerals (with different densities) may form from a single bulk composition.

Table 4 gives the approximate average and common range of density for the more abundant plutonic rocks. Densities of volcanic equivalents are generally slightly lower due to higher porosity and greater amount of glass. Highly porous volcanic rocks (pumice and scoria) may be so vesicular as to float on water. The density of completely glassy rocks is approximately 6% less than that of the corresponding holocrystalline (entirely crystalline) type. [C.A.C.A.]

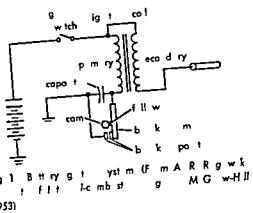
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Ignition system

The ignition system of an internal combustion engine initiates the chemical reaction between fuel and air in the cylinder charge. For maximum efficiency, it is necessary to ignite the charge in each cylinder shortly before the piston reaches the top of its compression stroke. The best timing is determined experimentally for various engine speed and loadings and the ignition system is designed to provide this timing automatically. For smooth running multicylinder engines are usually built so that the various pistons arrive at their firing top center positions in evenly spaced intervals. The sequence in which the cylinders reach their firing points depends upon the geometrical arrangement of the cylinders and crankshaft and is called the firing order of the engine. The ignition system distributes the ignition impulse to the cylinders in this order (see DISTRIBUTOR).

A large class of engine, including most automobile engines, operate on a premixed charge of fuel and air. In the engine, the charge is ignited by passing a high-voltage current between two electrodes in the combustion chamber (see SPARK PLUG). The electrodes are mounted in a removable unit. When a spark is produced, the energy jump the gap between the electrodes is a self-propagating flame produced in the fuel-air mixture which spreads rapidly throughout the charge.

Battery system. The electrical energy for the spark is obtained from a storage battery in practically all spark-ignition engines. The battery is



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Magneto system The magneto system is similar to the battery system except that the voltage required to cause a flow of current in the primary winding is generated by the rotation of a set of permanent magnets in the field of a coil wound on a core. The magnets are mounted on a shaft which is driven by the rotating magnets in the distributor. The magnets are mounted on a shaft which is driven by the rotating magnets in the distributor. The magnets are mounted on a shaft which is driven by the rotating magnets in the distributor.

Rotation of the magnets causes the magnetic flux in the primary coil to change. This change in flux induces a voltage in the secondary coil. The voltage in the secondary coil is used to ignite the mixture in the cylinder. The voltage in the secondary coil is used to ignite the mixture in the cylinder. The voltage in the secondary coil is used to ignite the mixture in the cylinder.

The magneto is often used in small engines. It is a simple and reliable system. It does not require a battery. It is easy to maintain. It is a good choice for small engines.

Compression ignition In the diesel engine, the fuel is injected into the cylinder and ignited by the heat of the compressed air. This is a different type of ignition system.

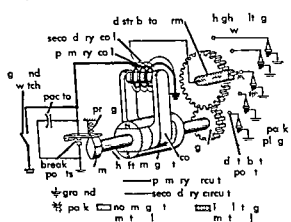


Fig 2 Magneto ignition system (F M C H Ch Fld C F T y l d S O b Th A p l d I l E g 5th d M G w-Hill 1949)

firing order of the cylinders is established by the geometry of the pump. In compression ignition engine the fuel burns as soon after ignition as it is able to find air with which to combine so that less attention need be paid to automatic injection timing control. When control is used pump shaft position relative to engine shaft can be changed automatically by centrifugal weights and a mechanical linkage.

Sometimes in small engines a premixed charge of fuel and air is ignited near the end of the compression stroke by the temperature of compression. Under the condition the entire charge once ignited burns rapidly since all parts of the charge are equally heated and prepared for combustion. The result is rough pounding combustion due to the high reaction rate. No precise way exists to control the exact timing of ignition with this method so that the combustion may occur too early or too late depending upon such factors as the temperature of the cylinder and the kind of fuel being used. Efficiency with such ignition is likely to be poor. [A R R]

Ignitron

A single anode mercury pool gas tube operating in the arc region. An ignitor is employed to initiate the arc cathode spot before each conducting period. See CAS TUBE.

Ignitron principle. The ignitor is a stationary electrode of semiconducting material such as boron carbide which extends into the mercury pool. A current pulse through the ignitor starts the arc at a desired time in each cycle of the ac anode voltage by forming a cathode spot on the mercury surface. Either a thyatron tube or a semiconductor rectifier may be used to deliver the firing impulse to the ignitor. See MERCURY VAPOR RECTIFIER.

The tube is nonconducting regardless of anode potential until a source of electrons is applied to initiate electrical breakdown of the gas within the tube. The cathode spot formed by the ignitor supplies the needed electrons to create an electron avalanche which terminates as an arc. Once the arc has been formed the cathode spot is maintained by the arc current and the action of the ignitor is terminated.

The ignitron remains conducting until the anode potential is reversed and for some microseconds thereafter until all the ions have become deionized.

The repetitive starting technique employed with ignitron makes possible a short anode-to-cathode spacing resulting in low voltage drop and high efficiency. In addition single anode tube like the ignitron and the excitron are unique among gas-filled tubes in their ability to carry high overload and short circuit current without appreciable damage. This results from the use of the excess vapor (re) generated by the cathode. The normal vapor pressure is controlled usually by water cooling at a value sufficient for let operation at rated load. The combination of a mercury pool cathode and a short anode-to-cathode spacing

make it possible for the excess vapor generated by the overload current to fill the discharge space just when needed and then condense on the walls in time for the next cycle of normal operation.

Ignitron types. There are two classes of ignitrons especially designed for different kinds of service. These are the welder and the rectifier ignitron.

Welder ignitrons. This tube is used in pair connected in series parallel to operate a ac contactor and control the primary current supplied to resistance welding transformers.

Welding ignitrons are of relatively open construction with little shielding and are designed specifically to carry the high current encountered in resistance welding. In welding service the anode current wave is sinusoidal and the current decreases to zero so slowly that the residual vapor blast and ionization present at the beginning of the inverse period is low enough that it does not cause arc back. Furthermore only the tube that conducts last is subjected to inverse voltage im-

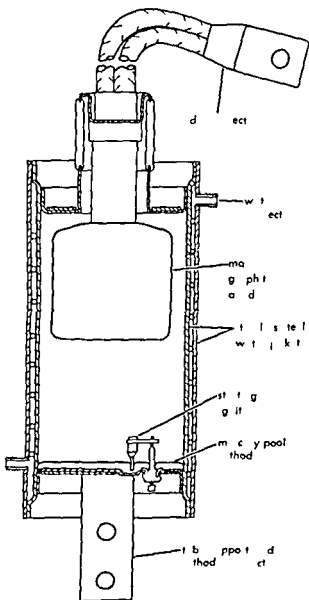


Fig 1 Sealed ignitron for weld service (General Electric)

med at ly fill ng cndu on The condit n
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typ le ed ign t on for w ld ng ervice is shown
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Fig

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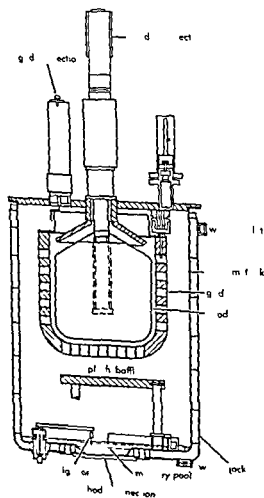


Fig 2 Schematic diagram of ignitron assembly (C n)

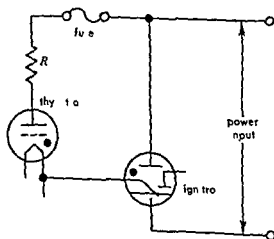


Fig 3 Elementary anode firing circuit

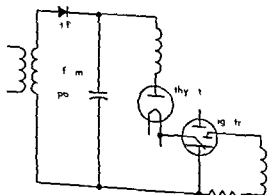


Fig 4 Elementary capacitor firing circuit

tor is discharged through the ignitor by saturating a reactor which is connected in series with the capacitor

Ignitron tubes and tanks are built in size ranging from 2 to 20 in diameter Ratings range from 25 to 1000 amperes average per tube at voltages from 250 to 20 000 volts and higher

[CCH]

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Ileitis

Regional ileitis is a sharply demarcated inflammation of the lower portion of the small intestine. Actually other portions of the small and large intestine may be involved so regional enteritis or regional enterocolitis may be preferred terms

The disease is marked by intestinal obstruction pain cramps diarrhea and constipation There is often associated weight loss or anemia Late in the disease after a long but often vague history the bowel appears thickened and firm and has a nodular mucosal lining which shows variable ulceration and inflammation Adjacent segments may show little or no change

The cause is unknown but faulty protein absorption psychic factors and abnormality of lymphatic drainage have been implicated by various investigators Although regional ileitis is found most often in young adults no age group is immune

The clinical course is typically erratic but progressive in most individuals Neither medical or surgical treatment offers a guaranteed cure because extension to previously unaffected bowel segments may occur

In contrast to regional ileitis ordinary ileitis is any inflammation of the ileum from specific causes such as trauma or infections such as tuberculosis typhoid fever and dysentery See **INTESTINE INTESTINE DISORDERS OF** [EGST]

Illite

The term illite is not a specific clay mineral name but is a general term for the mica type clay minerals It is commonly used for any nonexpanding clay mineral with a 10 angstrom c-axis spacing See **CLAY MINERALS**

Illite clays are used for the manufacture of structural clay products such as brick and tile Some degraded high plastic illites are used for bonding molding and See **CLAY COMMERCIAL CLAY PRODUCT ARCHITECTURAL**

Structural characteristics By definition all illite has the mica type structure The basic structural unit is composed of two silica tetrahedral sheets with a central octahedral sheet This unit is essentially the same as that of montmorillonite except that there is always some replacement ($15\% \pm$) of silicon by aluminum in the tetrahedral sheets This substitution results in a charge deficiency which is balanced by potassium between

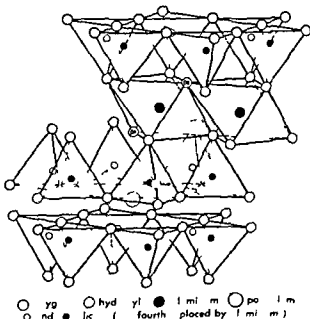
the illite unit layers The stacking of adjacent illite layers is such that the potassium just fits and is always surrounded by a total of 12 oxygens thus balancing the structural charge and binding the layers together without the possibility of expansion (see Fig 1) Illites may be either dioctahedral or trioctahedral depending on the population of possible octahedral positions They differ from well crystallized micas in that they exhibit less substitution of aluminum for silicon resulting in a higher silicon to aluminum molecular ratio

Nonstructural characteristics The size of naturally occurring illite particles is very small yet they are larger and thicker than montmorillonite particles and have better defined edges

The illites have a moderately low cation exchange capacity (20-30 milliequivalents per 100 grams) It is primarily due to broken bonds but lattice substitutions may also be a cause in poorly crystallized varieties The rate of the exchange reaction is likely to be slow since a small part of the exchange occurs through partial replacement of the firmly held interlayer potassium ions

Dehydration curves for illites show the presence of a small amount of interlayer water which is lost below 100 C The OH lattice water is lost between 300 and 600 C Following the loss of structure between 850 and 950 C spinel and mullite phases form prior to fusion at about 1400 C

Occurrence Illite is a common product of weathering if potash is present in the environment of alteration It is a frequent constituent in many soil types and may form in soils under certain conditions as a consequence of the addition of potash fertilizers This is possible because illite has the ability to fix potassium Much illite in soils loses its potassium through leaching and becomes degraded On the addition of potassium to such ma-



Diagrammatic sketch of the structure of illite (From R E G m *Clay Mineralogy* McGraw-Hill 1953)

luminosity function. Any one of several units of area may be used to express the density of this luminous flux or the illumination. In the English system the unit of illumination is the lumen/ft². The term foot candle was coined in earlier evaluation techniques and probably will continue to persist in the terminology. The lumen/ft² and the foot candle are identical units. See FOOT CANDLE, ILLUMINANCE, LUMEN, LUMINOUS FLUX, LUX, PIOT.

Light sources. Nature's source of radiation the sun produces radiant power on the earth extending from wavelengths below 0.3μ in the ultraviolet region to well over 3μ in the infrared region of the spectrum. The sun's spectral radiation per unit of wavelength is greatest in the region of $0.4-0.9 \mu$. The response of the human eye is well matched to this range of wavelengths. See SOLAR RADIATION, VISION.

Oil flame and gas lighting were used before the advent of the electric light, but since about 1900 electric energy has been the source of essentially all modern lighting devices.

Incandescent lamps. The electric lamps operated by virtue of the incandescence of a filament heated by electric current. The filament usually is composed of tungsten and is contained in either a vacuum or inert gas-filled glass bulb. See INCANDESCENT LAMP, INFRARED LAMP.

Vapor lamps. The electric lamps operate by the passage of an electric current through a gas or vapor. In some lamps the light may be produced by incandescence of one or both electrodes. In other the radiation results from luminescent phenomena in the electrically excited gas itself. See ARC LAMP, VAPOR LAMP.

Fluorescent lamps. These are usually in the form of a glass tube either straight or curved, coated internally with one or more fluorescent powders called phosphors. Electrodes are located at each end of the tube. The lamp is filled to a low pressure with an inert gas and a small amount of mercury is added. The electric current passing through the gas and vapor generates ultraviolet radiation which in turn excites the phosphor to emit light. If the emission of light continues only during the excitation process it is called fluorescence. If

the materials continue to emit light after the source of excitation energy is removed the process is called phosphorescence. Phosphors for fluorescent lamps are chosen to accentuate the fluorescent action. See FLUORESCENT LAMP.

Reflection and transmission. The control of light is of primary importance in illumination engineering because light sources rarely have inherent characteristics of distribution, brightness, or color desirable for direct application. Modification of light may be provided in a number of ways, all of which may be grouped under the general topics of reflection and transmission. Reflection from a surface and transmission through it each may be classified according to their spatial and spectral characteristics.

Spatial characteristics. Spatially a surface may exhibit reflection conditions ranging from a regular or specular reflection to an ideally diffuse characteristic. Similarly transmission may range spatially from complete transparency to an idealized diffuse transmission.

Figure 2 illustrates the extremes of specular reflection such as would be obtained from polished metal or silvered glass, and an ideal mat finished surface composed of microscopic roughnesses of minute crystals or pigment particles. The specular reflector gives a direct image of the source with the angle of reflection equal to the angle of incidence. The plot shown for the diffuse reflector is the small area intensity distribution curve; it exhibits a cone distribution in the idealized case.

Practical surface possess partial reflective characteristics intermediate between the ideal, particularly at the diffuse end of the range. Typical distribution curves are shown in Fig. 3. In all of the illumination the light source is small. Figure 3a demonstrates that even with the least practical mat surface, such as a dull finished metal or the one painted with flat paint, the location of the source of light has some light influence upon the intensity distribution as evidenced by an irregularity of the cone distribution of intensity from the small area of the surface. Figure 3b and c demonstrate the pronounced influence of the location of the light source upon the intensity distribution for surfaces covered with semimat material such as a

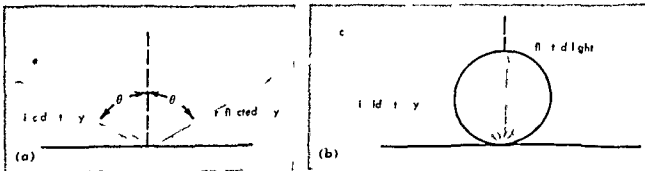


Fig. 2. Ideal effects. (a) Specular. (b) Diffuse. (From W. B. B. Illumination Engineering, 2d ed., McGraw-Hill, 1953.)

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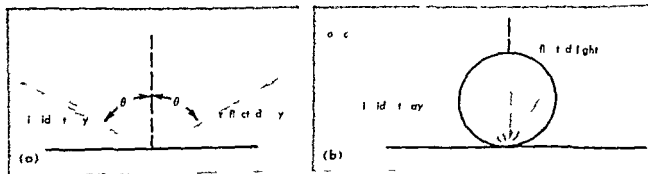


Fig. 2 Ideal reflection (a) Specular (b) Diffuse
(From W. B. Boott, Illumination Engineering, 2d ed., McGraw-Hill, 1953)

reflection is for the surface and the transmission factor of the material. The reflection and transmission are dependent upon the source of illumination as well as the spectral characteristics of the surface or the transmitting medium. Such factors are frequently published for tungsten filament light and arc lamps as guides and indicate the magnitude of the surface illumination and its distribution.

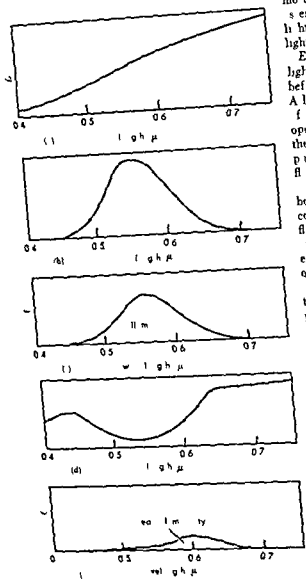


Fig 6 The process of visualizing light. (a) Spectral irradiance G curve (b) Relative luminous flux curve (c) Relative luminous flux curve (d) Relative luminous flux curve (e) Relative luminous flux curve. The integration of G (if m W B B of m m) Engineering 2d McGraw-Hill 1953)

Light control methods The character of the reflecting surface or transmitting material determines the degree of light control possible. If a light ray is reflected or transmitted diffusely the shape of the reflecting or transmitting surface is of little importance. A larger diffuse surface will reduce the brightness of the primary source. If a light ray is reflected from a specular surface more accurate control of the light can be effected.

Parabolic reflectors These are probably the most useful of all reflectors. The rays emerge essentially parallel from such a reflector if the light source is placed at its focal point. See the light upon parabolic mirror reflectors.

Elliptical reflectors A relatively large amount of light may be made to pass through a small opening before being placed at one of the focal points of a nearly complete elliptical reflector. A small opening is placed at the second focal point where the light is focused. Such a design is used for the powerful spotlight. For further discussion of reflectors see PROJECTOR LIGHT.

Lens control Refraction of light rays at the boundary between glass and air may be used to control transmitted light in a manner similar to reflection. A simple thick lens may be cut away if the cutaway piece is duplicated in the new equivalent surface. Shifting elements in the field of the light beam occur. There may be little or no change so far as highlights or shadows but they would be undesirable for high quality picture projection. See LENS OPTICAL.

Polarization of light Light rays emitted by common sources may be considered as waves vibrating at all angles in planes at right angles to the direction of the ray. As they pass through a substance so as to reflect or refract at surfaces, particularly transparent glass, wave components are determined as absorbed more than the other direction. Such light is said to be polarized.

Polarized light may be controlled by a transparent substance of polarizing material. When the absorbing substance is oriented perpendicular to the plane of vibration of the light, no light is transmitted. If the absorbing substance is tilted 90 degrees the polarized light is entirely completely absorbed. Because of light reflection from water or polished surfaces, highly polarized glass is much so, is effectively controlled by polarized sunglasses or a filter. Polarized light is used also for detection of stress and defects in glass and plastics. The trained eye is especially sensitive to the matter. See POLARIZED LIGHT.

Interior lighting design Attention must be given to a comfortable level of illumination. The lighting design should be a dequated distribution of illumination and control of brightness. The illumination should be a good example of contrast. The adequate distribution of illumination requires that efficient methods of lighting

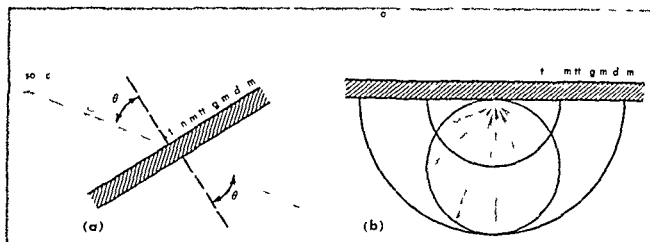


Fig 4 Ideal transmission characteristics (a) Specular (b) Diffuse (From W B Boast Illumination Engineering 2nd ed McGraw Hill 1953)

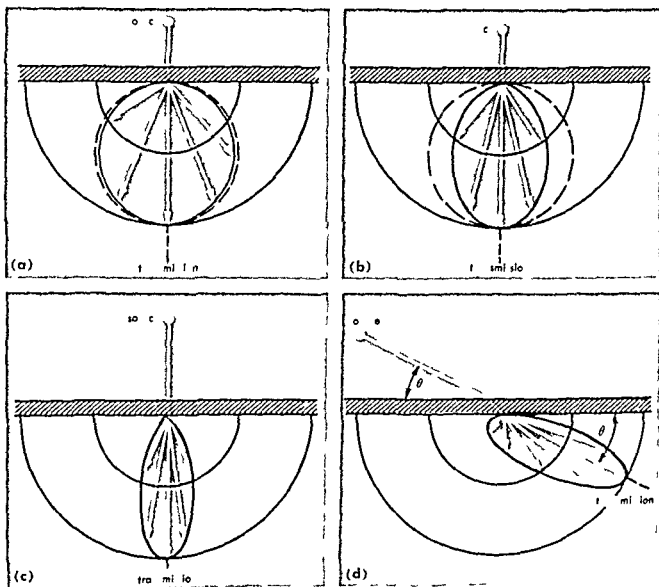


Fig 5 Typical transmission characteristics (a) Solid opal glass (b) Flashed opal glass (c) Sand blasted glass (d) Sand blasted glass with side light at 30

from plane at right (From W B Boast Illumination Engineering 2nd ed McGraw Hill 1953)

er lighting wh e high lev l of illumi ati n is d rabi o an solated ta k Local lighting that does t uppl mnt ge ral light g u ally doe s persn conform ne with the l m tati ns n b ghtnes e tra ts for nt rior light ne d gns

Exterior lighting design The hit me lght g ol r r r at a rves many u efal purpo es Su h lighting e te d int the filds f adert ing and rec et l p r u ts as well a llt ran fild i h th lighting f nd tr l yards pa k ng areas a rpo t treet a d h gh w ys The IES Light g Handb ok a d m ny t xbooks t eat ind ta l ma y f the e pec alzed appl at ons.

Automobile headlamps H adlamp u tw beam of dffer nt ch ra r r t under the on trol f th d The am g nd t n ty f n beam d gned t provd d stant ill mi at u Th d r b am s med l w enough and in ch d iect o t p ev t glar f r coming dr er

Sealed be m h d lght ha e been d n e bc t 1940 Wh n filam nt b rns t the ent e l m p t epl d th a r t r ing th parabol c re flect s d nd t of alignm t of the lght sou ebett tha was p ble f r a epa ate lamp i p rman t flecto

Recommended standards of illumination Illu mnt lvs f ha e b e t l h d by the Illu m n t ng Eng eri g Soc ty t b g all al tak t th am lev l f b lity f n m l ol n Som l t k m e ad than th r and h gh r ll m to p o d e a on pe t ng f r n b ng ng h t k t a s t e f t y lev l f b l t St dard est b l h d t l y f r nte r lght ng d ens but too f r t r o s t m l d g rec eat onal lght g F r l l l l m mended illum t n lvs f l t efer l u t ed in th b bl gr phy

Colored light Th great t p eci n s col r pec h at obt ned b th u f th p t al rves f t t a el gth f sh d at o H w e f r t al n d t o t h s b l d that y l r m d p f ompl p tral mpo nt m be m t h ed ally b p p r t g th p pely h mpon t r dia l Th l t m gn t d f thes the m t t d t r lled th trichomat coe f f n t f th l r Oth d g n t f d m t t w l ngth d p e r l p ty m y be f t ed lva f m thes tr h mat coe f f e t s

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g 193

Ilmenite

A m neral having compo s t n FeTiO and cry tal l ng in the h x gon al y tem Ilmenite s found n cry tal that are tab la p aralll to the t a l plane with rh mb h d al t ncat on but u ally m y e Th hardn s is 5.5-6 (M h s cal) and the pe s f c gra ty s 4.7 Th l u t e r t r tall and the cl r r r n black Ilmenit s an ace r y m neral n l gneou o k s and n ome ba ic rocks i f und n la g e m s es res l t n from ma c matic segr a t n t wh h it may l e s t mately a c ated with magnet te It s found n cry tals n the Ilmen Mountains, Rus a and n la g q antu s at k age Norway a d Bay St Paul and Allard Lah Quebec In the Un ted States it s a c ated with the magnet te depo t f the Adira dack r g on a d m n d as an re f t u t n m at Tabawa New Y k See TITANIUM [C S H V]

Image acoustical

If point sou e of o d is placed on on id f n xie d d e flect ng urface it may be co id red t ha e an imag at an eq lalent d tanc on d th r ide of the s f c e l ng a p r p d cular p o j e t n analog u t th f r l i a opt al ma e (s e l s a c e OPTICAL) The fl ts of r f l e t ng urfa es on a ou t w e freq ently ca be p e d t ed by the u l u f i m g s A sou e s f ont of a ery r f l t u wall f r example plast r co c t and ma r y reflect 97.99% of t c d nt nd energy) will h e an image of t r e n g t h al m t eq al t that of th ou e i b at g m p h a e th e ur T obta the t t al effect at any p t d u to the m b l e d act on of a urc a d s u h r f l t i g u f a c the effect s d u t th u c t If d noth r ou e of equal t e n g t h placed at the mag p o n t a e d d ed If there t a ec d flect ng u f e p r e s t th o c l l d f t o d e m g w l l h e n i m a e called the co d order m g of the rce at an qu l e t d t n e n th th id f th nd r flect ng i f S m l a r l y n image f the e ond ord mag e i d t b th d r d e r mag nd o on Alth gh th method is p e c i e n l y when th f l e t i g s r l a e t o a b o r p t t t t t e n of n d rabi h l p n m n e s t g a t n of th act on of sound wa es n ooms S ARCHITECTURAL A C O S T I C S [C M H]

Image optical

A p t cal m g e s t e m g f r m e d b the lght rays f m e l f l m n s o a l l u m n a t e d o b j e c t th t t r e a n p t cal s y t m Th m g e s s a d t b e r a l f the lght a y con e r g to a focus on th m g d e and r t u al f the ray seem to m f m a p o t with n the m t r u m e n t (s e l l e t r t n)
Th p t i m g of b j e c t s g n by th lght d t r i b t n th m g plan m g f r m a h p n t f the o b j e c t t h m a g e p l e f a p t i v s t e m The id al m f a p t c d ng t g r o m t al p t s o b t a n e d when all rays

sources be installed in a manner that produces an adequate level and a proper distribution of illumination. Brightness is controlled by adequate surface reflection or transmission areas associated with the lighting sources and with proper reflecting surfaces within the room itself. Control should ensure that the brightest surfaces of the room are not more than three times the brightness of the work and the brightness of the work not more than three times that of the darkest surfaces in the room. When such brightness ratio limitations are satisfied glare will be absent and a satisfactory visual environment is achieved. A proper application of color in the interior enhances the overall appearance.

The function of a building greatly influences the manner in which lighting is applied. A particular visual task may require a certain level of illumination, but the lighting design is also influenced by the economics, appearance and quality of desired result. For example, application techniques are designated as industrial lighting, commercial lighting and school lighting. Certain application experience and consumer acceptance assume importance in the methods of achieving the level of illumination and control of brightness contrasts. The *IES Lighting Handbook* treats in detail many of the specialized concepts.

Location and spacing of luminaires. Many interior lighting designs utilize general lighting to distribute luminous flux throughout the room on an imaginary working plane which is usually 30 in. above the floor. To accomplish a reasonably uniform illumination on this plane, certain limitations in spacing between luminaires and spacing between luminaires and walls must not be exceeded. The height of luminaires above the plane may be an important factor for some interiors. For indirect type luminaires, the distance from the ceiling to the luminaire must provide a proper distribution of light over the ceiling. See LUMINAIRE.

Room coefficients. The shape of a room influences the fraction of the emitted luminous flux that will be received on the working plane. Equations and empirical tabulation have been developed to classify rooms according to their shape. Large broad rooms are more efficient than small or narrow rooms for transferring luminous flux from the luminaire to the working plane, particularly if the reflection factor of the side walls is low.

Lumen method of illumination design. This empirical method of design gives the average illumination on the working plane for a particular number of luminaire arranged in a symmetric pattern in a room. The illumination that may be expected to be maintained in the room is

$$F = \frac{\Lambda \phi_L \lambda M}{A}$$

where F is illumination in foot candles (or lumen/ft²); Λ is number of luminaire; ϕ_L is initial luminous flux per luminaire in lumen; λ is coefficient

of utilization; M is maintenance factor and A is area of room in square feet.

Tables of the coefficient of utilization are obtained empirically. Usually these tables pertain to a particular luminaire. The coefficient of utilization is a function of the room coefficient and the reflection factor of principally the ceiling and side walls. Also called the flux of light method, this was originally designed as a component method whereby the candle power distribution curve of any luminaire could be resolved into three component curves and each calculated according to an equation similar to that shown. However, modern use of the method is principally through coefficients of utilization for each particular luminaire.

The maintenance factor M is a numerical value used to account for lamp darkening and the collection of dirt within the luminaire which reduce the illumination emitted from the luminaire.

Interreflection method. The interreflection of luminous flux within a room is accounted for in the empirical data of the lumen method. An exact mathematical calculation of the distribution of luminous flux within rectangular rooms becomes extremely involved. Various simplifying assumptions, however, permit an approximate solution for both the illumination upon the working plane and the brightness of various surfaces within the room. Tabulations of calculated data for the normalized illumination and brightness for interiors of various room coefficients and surface reflection factors are published in some of the references given at the end of this article. Conformance with the 3:1 or 1:3 brightness ratio criterion for a comfortable visual environment becomes a standard checking procedure in the application of the interreflection method.

Luminous architectural elements. The original emphasis in the lumen method was upon discrete luminaires arranged symmetrically within the room. The development of the interreflection method of design presumed surface of initial brightness on ceiling, wall and floor as the sources of light within the room. Ingenuity in the application of both methods permit them to be applied both to designs involving luminaires within the room and to designs incorporating many types of luminous architectural elements such as illuminated ceiling, luminous ceiling and ceiling system of lighting.

Natural lighting. Daylight may be a important factor in building design. For comfortable visual conditions, any opening for the admission of daylight are planned in position and shape carefully. Any other part of a building which can be treated as any other type of light source and included as a part of the illumination and brightness design according to the principles of lighting. It is usually a very practical electric lighting system for the time of day when the daylight is available.

Supplementary lighting. Local lighting, such as spotlighting, is frequently used to illuminate specific

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Exterior lighting design The nighttime lighting of a site is a very important part of the overall design. It is not only a matter of safety, but it can also be a major factor in the overall appearance of a site. The design of exterior lighting should take into account the needs of the site, the needs of the community, and the needs of the environment. It should be designed to provide adequate illumination for safety and security, while also being aesthetically pleasing and energy efficient. The design should also take into account the needs of the environment, such as the need to protect wildlife and the need to conserve energy. The design should be a balance of all these factors, and it should be designed to meet the needs of the site, the community, and the environment.

IES Light g Ha db ok a d m ny textb oks tr at
in det l m ny f these sp cial z d appl at ns

Automobile headlamps Headlamp use two beams of different heights. Under the center of the beam the intensity of the beam is designed to produce a minimum of glare. The beam is aimed low enough so that it does not prevent the driver from seeing the road ahead.

Sealed beam headlights have been used since about 1940. When a flame burns at the end of a lamp, it placed the lighting the public reflector and definition of alignment of the light source better than was possible for a point lamp in a permanent fixture.

Recommended standards of illumination Illumination tables provided by the Illuminating Engineering Society of America are as follows:

Colored light Th g t t p e n c l
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p o t d t n a l l e d t h e t h r o m
o e f f i s h i O t h d g a n l f d
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{ {menite
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A mineral having composition FeTiO_3 and crystallizing in the hexagonal system. Ilmenite is found in rocks that are tabular parallel to the basal plane with rhombohedric twins but is usually massive. The hardness is 5.5-6 (Mohs scale) and the specific gravity is 4.7. The luster is metallic and the color is iron black. Ilmenites are a common mineral in igneous rocks and in some laterite ores. It is a large mass resulting from magnetite segregation, which it may be intimately associated with magnetite. It is found in crystals in the Ilmen Mountains, Russia, and in large quantities in the Långban, Norway, and Bay St. Paul and Allard Lake, Quebec. In the United States it is associated with the magnetite deposits of the Adirondack region and is mined as an ore of titanium at Tahavua, New York. **Se. TITANIUM** [c. 80]

Image acoustical

If point source is undisturbed and placed in front of an ideal reflecting surface, it may be considered that an image at an equivalent distance in the other side of the reflecting surface is produced. (See Fig. 1.1.1) The sum of reflected waves from the surface is the same as the waves from the point source. (See Fig. 1.1.2) The sum of reflected waves from the surface is the same as the waves from the point source. (See Fig. 1.1.2) The sum of reflected waves from the surface is the same as the waves from the point source. (See Fig. 1.1.2)

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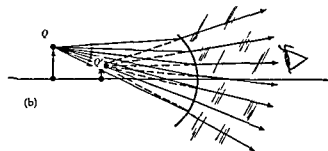
Image optical

An optical image that magnified by the light
 rays from a self-luminous object
 that travel in parallel rays. The magnified
 image is a direct ray image of the
 object. The image is a point within
 the instrument (cell).

Th opt al mag f n bje t s ga n by the
light d t ib r in th m ge plan m g f m
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opt l s t m The d l m g of point a c rd
g t geom tical opt s his ned when ll r ys



(a)



(b)

(a) Real image Rays leaving object point Q and passing through the refracting surface separating media n and n' are brought to a focus at the image point Q' .
 (b) Virtual image Rays leaving Q and refracted by the concave spherical surface separate and appear to be coming from the virtual image point Q' . As they are diverging they cannot be focused at any point (Modified from F. A. Jenkins and H. E. White, *Fundamentals of Optics*, 3d ed. McGraw-Hill 1957).

from an object point unite in a single image point. However, diffraction theory teaches that in this case the image is not a point but a minute disk. The diameter of this disk is about $1.22\lambda/A$, where λ is the wavelength of the light considered and A is the numerical aperture, the largest cone angle on the image side multiplied by its refractive index (which is usually equal to unity).

Aberrations From the standpoint of geometrical optics, if this most desirable type of image formation cannot be achieved, the next best objective is to have the image free from all but aperture errors (spherical aberration). In this case the light distribution in the image plane is still circular, resembling the point image; there is a true coordination of object point and image, although the image may be slightly unsharp. If the aperture error are small and the image is viewed from a distance, such an image formation may be very satisfactory.

Asymmetry and deformation error may be very disturbing if not held in check, because the light distribution of the image of a point in this case has a decidedly undesirable shape.

When the image of an axial point is considered, the rays through any fixed aperture circle converge to this axial point. For this type of imagery, the term *half sharp image* will be used. A small object at the object point is then imaged by a circular pupil at the focus of the bundle with a magnification

$$m = (n' \sin u') / (n \sin u)$$

where u and u' are the angles of the imaging cone in object and image space respectively, and n and n' are the corresponding refractive indices.

If the axial point is sharply imaged, an object of finite extent is sharply imaged if and only if $m = m'$ (the Gaussian magnification) for all values of u (sine condition).

In the case of aperture errors, the most desirable image formation is attained when the different images appear under the same angle from the exit pupil. If K' is the distance of the image point on the exit pupil, Δs is the aperture aberration, and

$$\Delta m = \frac{n' \sin u'}{n \sin u} - m$$

is the magnification error compared with the magnification m on the axis, the condition is

$$\Delta s / K' - \Delta m / m = \text{constant}$$

The fulfillment of this condition gives equal imagery for an object near the axis of a system with rotation symmetry.

Corresponding conditions can be ascertained for the image of an off-axis element if all the asymmetry errors and deformation errors are balanced. See **ABERRATION OPTICAL**.

Resolution Two points are resolved by an optical system if the two images lie apart. Photometric analysis of an image may show the existence of two object points even if their images overlap, but in such an analysis not only the imagery but also the illumination of the object play a role.

In interference experiments it is found that the image of two self-luminous points (that is, two light sources that are sufficiently separated) is incoherent; that is, the intensities of the two beams are simply added. If the two object points are illuminated by the same light source, however, the phase relation of the light at the two points has to be taken into consideration. This is of the greatest importance for microscopes and telescopes, which image very small or distant objects. In this case an artificial change of phase by plates and apodization may improve resolution. See **DIFFRACTION RESOLVING POWER (OPTICS)**.

Resolving power is not the only consideration in image formation. The eye recognizes only contrast difference, and therefore objects may not be discerned if the contrast difference is too small. Again, for the image of a point or an object illuminated by a point light source, mean can be found to change the apparent contrast, making it possible to discern illogical objects. For example, a large small difference of refractive index.

Image analysis In recent times methods have been suggested for obtaining information about optical images by means of a variety of analytical techniques. In an optical system a sinusoidal image altered in phase and amplitude. A large number of sinusoidal test objects with different frequencies (number of maxima per millimeter) are imaged, and the amplitude and phase are measured.

The curves of amplitude versus frequency are measures for resolving power and contrast as a function of the frequency of the test object with a

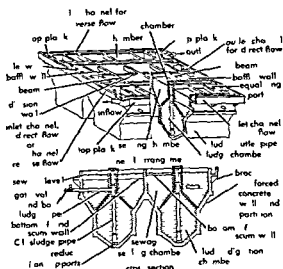
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Image orthicon

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Imhoff tank

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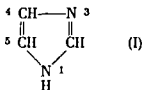
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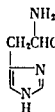
Imidazole

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l e x) t g f m e m b e r e d d i a t e d

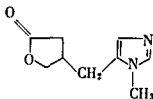
ring with two nonadjacent nitrogen atoms as part of the ring. Imidazole (I) is a typical member of the group (see AZOLE. HETEROCYCLIC COMPOUNDS). The imidazole ring system is found in a number of



natural product for example in the α -amino acid histidine (II) and in the alkaloid pilocarpine (III). Histamine (IV) is associated with



(II)



(III)



(IV)

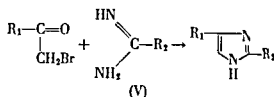
allergic response and ostensibly is the biological target against which the antagonistic action of synthetic antihistaminics is directed. The biologically important purine system contains an imidazole ring fused to pyrimidine. The imidazole ring present in enzyme proteins as the histidine side chain is involved in enzyme catalyzed reactions primarily by serving as an efficient acyl transfer agent. The same kind of imidazole ring in the blood protein globin effectively holds heme and globin together by coordinating with the iron atom of the heme.

Properties and preparation. Imidazole itself (I) is a water-soluble solid, mp 90°C, which is basic enough (pK_a 6.95 at 25°C) to form stable salts with both organic and inorganic acids. Imidazole is also weakly acidic since the hydrogen at the 1 position may be replaced by metal. The low volatility of imidazole (bp 256°C) is indicative of considerable association by intermolecular hydrogen bonding.

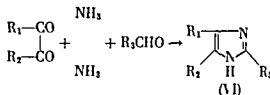
Imidazole is a resonance system showing the chemical behavior of a moderately aromatic ring. The system is stable to oxidation by nitric acid, hexavalent chromium, and alkaline permanganate, and it is in general resistant to ring reduction. An amino group at position 4 may be diazotized normally. Imidazole undergoes electrophilic substitution such as bromination, nitration, or sulfonation at position 4 and azo coupling at position 2. The imidazole ring is opened by attack of peroxide and peracid. Alkylation of nitrogen is possible to give first 1-alkylimidazole and then 1,3-dialkylimidazole.

lithium cations. Hot alkali disrupts the ring in the quaternary imidazolium compounds.

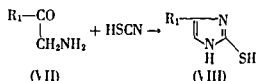
Several general methods of synthesis are known. Combination of α -halo ketones with amidines (V)



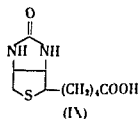
gives imidazoles, a process emphasizing the amidine structure of imidazole. α -Dicarbonyl compounds react with ammonia and aldehyde to give



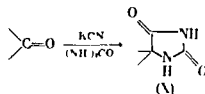
imidazoles (VI). Further α -amino ketone or aldehydes (VII) condense with thiocyanate to give 2-mercaptoimidazoles (VIII).



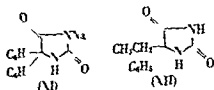
Important derivatives. Imidazoline and imidazolidines are the name assigned to dihydro- and tetrahydroimidazoles, respectively. Such compounds are generally formed by ring closure processes involving positions 1, 2, or 3. Ring carbonyl derivatives are known. Biotin (IX), for example, is a condensed 2-imidazolidone.



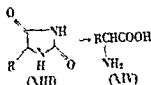
Hydantoins or 2,4-diketimidazolidines (X) are prepared by condensation of a ketone or aldehyde



with potassium cyanide and ammonium carbonate. Hydantoins have been studied extensively in connection with the physiological activity of 5,5-disubstituted derivatives and because of the possibility of converting hydantoin to α -amino acid. The 5,5-diphenyl derivative, Dilantin sodium (XI), is used as an anti-epileptic agent in treatment of epilepsy. The 5-ethyl-5-phenyl derivative, Arvanol,

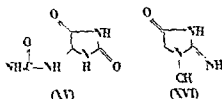


(XII) an effect hypoxic Complete b d only
is (b) danto no ge rates an α-amin a d (XIII)
(XIV) Th r te cont tutes on of th tando d



y thoses f α-amin a d 1,3-D h mo- and
1,3-d h l co-5-d methylhyd t n a onv nient
sou ces f pos tr b l

All t n. r 5-ur id h da to n (VV) th
e d prod t f purin m tabol m n most mam



et l (b) t n t n ludin m n n l an intermed-
t th p r m tabol m of r u t ean s d
m ph b Cr t (VII) f rmed r r r b l r
th body f m e t d e ted

[W. G. L.]

B b l p h R. C. Eld r f l d (ed) H t ocy
C mpound L. S. 195 K. H. Imann, *Im da-
zol nd u D at P r t l* 1953

Immunity

A t r m sed n med i ne t den te a tate f re-
t e t ag nt th p r a t th t small
p du es a t fect n n e m re bo n rec es
l m m t a compl res t ant f m m m
p r som at and h re tahl thers a
q red f t a t t l co t a t with the patho-
gen.

Natural immunity Domestic ts, like n s r l all
mamal ex co t e m les the at natu-
ll n ex p b l l co t t, hum ns nd m
kex, a p r m t l b t d l equ e the
d u e bo ast gle nfect q u t g ll
m t m e q u e t a b e t n. It t rem kable that
m t l d g h m a g n r a l t ucep-
t t t even th most r u l e n t p t path g e a d
p l n t l k e w e t a c e p t l t a m l patho-
g e n t f a t t e r e n t g h t m e x c p t o n
n k n p h b t r m p a d m n a s
p r k w l l f e e t h p l t d m a n.

Th e o d t f e e r r t b e t k e n m t
t l k a t m m F z m
p l m e a t k w n t e n t t f p u m o c o c c a l
t r u m a n d t l d o n d r

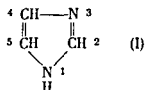
mal m e may be kept indefinitely w thout infec-
tion, in cages filled with mce dving of an ex-
perimental pneumococcal infection. Th natural
barr rs to acquirin r tran mittin, the d e a e p-
p e r a b s o l u t e h e r e n e v e r t h e l e s i f t h e s e b a r r r s
a r b y p a s s e d b t h i n t r a p e r i t n a l i n j e c t i o n o f
e v e n t h e w o l n t o r g a n i s m, t h e m o u s e b e c o m e s
e x c e e d i n g l y s u s c e p t i b l e t o f a t a l i n f e c t i o n.

Immunity mechanisms. An adding pathogen
ma fail t win f o o t h l d b e c u s e t h e e n v i r o n m e n t
l e k o n e o m r e g r o w t h f a c t o r s o r p h y s i c a l c o n d i t i o n s n e c e s s a r y f o r m u l t i p l i c a t i o n, a n d i n t h e a s e
o f a n a d e n i n e e q u i r m e n t n i c b a c t e r i u m t h a t c a n
n o t i n f e c t t h m o u, u n l e s t h e c h e m i c a l a d e n i n e i s
a l s o i n j e c t e d. A l t e r n a t i v e l y t h e n a t u r a l r e s i s t a n c e
f d e s t o a n t h r a x a p p e a r s t o b e d u e t o a c t i v e
d e s t r u c t i o n o f t h e o r g a n i s m b y s u b s t a n c e s a n t i f o c a l p a s s e t r a n s m i t t e d.

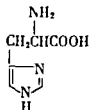
Som b e r r c u h a k i n o r t h e m u c o u s m e m b r a n e o f t h e n a s a l a n d t r a p a t r a c t, m a y m e c h a n i c a l l y p r e v e n t a t t a c h m e n t o f m i c r o o r g a n i s m. r t h e y m a c o n t a i n c h e m i c a l c o m p o n e n t t h a t p r e v e n t m u l t i p l i c a t i o n o f b a c t e r i a o r a c t i v e l y d e s t r o y t h m. E n i f t h y d n t c o n s t i t u t e a b s o l u t e b a r r i e r s b o t h a c t i o n s m a y d e l a y t h p r o c e s s o f i n f e c t u n t i l o t h e r d e f e n s e s a n b e b r o u g h t i n t o p l a y. F o r m o s t a m n g t h e s e t h e v a r i e t y f i x e d a d w a n d r u n e l l t h a t c o m p r i s e t h e p h a g o c y t e y t e m. T h a c t i v e a r e c o m p l e x (1) t h m v e n g u l f a n d d e s t r o y c e r t a i n m i c r o o a n i s m s d i r e c t l y (2) t h e y m a y e n g u l f a n d k i l l t h r e s u l t c g a n i s m o n l y i f a i d e d b y a c e s s o r y h u m o r a l f a c t o r s u c h a s a n t i b o d y a n d c o m p l m e n t a n d (3) i n o t h c a s e s w h i l e t h e y m a y e n g u l f m i c r o o a n i s m s s u c h a s t h e g o n o c o c c u s t h e l a t t e r m a y t h r e m a i n i n t h e c e l l, e s c a p e f r o m t h e a c c e s s o r y s u b s t a n c e s r s o m t i m e s c h e m o t h r a p e u t i c d r u g s a n d t h e d i s e a s e m a y t h n p r o g r e s s t o a c h r o n i c s t a t e. A n t i b o d y c o m p l m e n t, a n d t h r e n t l y d e s c r i b e d p r o p e r d i n m a y h e l p n o t o n l y t o p r e p a r e m i c r o o a n i s m f o r e f f e c t e p h a g o c y t o s i s b u t a l s o m a y h e d i r e c t b e t e r i c i d a l e f f e c t b y t h m e l e s S e A N T I B O D Y C O M P L E M E N T (E R I C) P R O P E R D I N

A l t h o u g h t h a r e h e m i a l a n d m e c h a n i c b a r r i e r s t h e p h o c y t e s y s t e m a n d t h e h u m o r a l f a c t o r s a p p e a r t o c o n t r i b u t e t h a c t i v e m e c h a n i s m b y w h i c h a l e v e l o f i m m u n i t y i s a c h i e v e d t h e q u a l i t a t i v e a n d q u a n t i t a t i v e c u r i e s a r e g o v e r n e d b y a c t i v i t y o f o t h e r b o o t f e c t o r s a m n g w h i c h a g e n e t c o m p o n e n t h a s b e e n i d e n t i f i e d. W h i l e t h i s i s d i f f i c u l t t o e v a l u a t e f o r m a n t u s t a c a l e v i d e n c e i s g e t t i n g t h a t u s e p t i b l e t h r u m t i c f e v e r p o l i o m e l i n t u b e r c u l l e p r o s t r a n s a n d a r i o u s i l l n e s s e s i n f l u e n c e d b y h e d t v. M o r e d e c i v e d n e e f g e n e t o f e c t i m m u n i t y h a s c o m e f r o m e x p e r i m e n t s w i t h a n i m a l s a n d p l a n t s. C r o p s w i t h g r a t e r r e s i s t a n c e t o w h a t r u s a n d t h e r d i s e a s e s a r e i m p o r t a n t r e s u l t s o f a g r i c u l t u r a l r e s e a r c h. A g e d i c t r e a t m e n t h o r m o n e s w h a A C T H a n d c o r t i s o a d r a d a n a l s o h a s m a s u b l e i n f l u e n c e s i m m u n i t y S H O R M O N A N D P H A G O C Y T O S I S

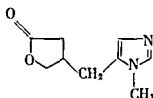
ring with two nonadjacent nitrogen atoms as part of the ring. Imidazole (I) is a typical member of the group (see AZOLE. HETEROCYCLIC COMPOUNDS). The imidazole ring system is found in a number of



natural product for example in the α -amino acid histidine (II) and in the alkaloid pilocarpine (III). Histamine (IV) is associated with allergic response and ostensibly is the biological target against which the antagonistic action of synthetic antihistamines is directed. The biologically important purine system contains an imidazole ring fused to pyrimidine. The imidazole ring present in enzyme proteins as the histidine side chain is involved in enzyme catalyzed reactions primarily by serving as an efficient acyl transfer agent. The same kind of imidazole ring in the blood protein globin effectively holds heme and globin together by coordinating with the iron atom of the heme.



(II)



(III)



(IV)

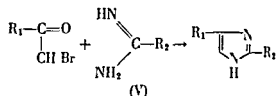
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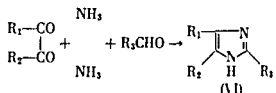
lum cations. Hot alkali disrupts the ring in the quarternary imidazolium compounds.

Several general methods of synthesis are known. Combination of α -halo ketones with amidines (V)



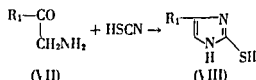
(V)

gives imidazoles a process emphasizing the amidine structure of imidazole. α -Dicarbonyl compounds react with ammonia and aldehydes to give



(VI)

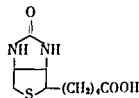
imidazoles (VI). Further α -aminoketone or aldehydes (VII) condense with thiocyanate to give 2-mercaptoimidazoles (VIII).



(VII)

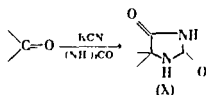
(VIII)

Important derivatives. Imidazoles and imidazolidines are the name assigned to dihydro and tetrahydroimidazoles, respectively. Such compounds are generally formed by ring closure processes involving positions 1, 2, or 3. Ring carbonyl derivatives are known. Biotin (IX), for example, is a condensed 2-imidazolidone.



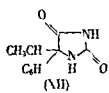
(IX)

Hydantoin, or 2,4-diketimidazolidine (X), are prepared by condensation of a ketone or aldehyde

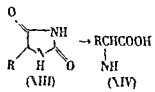


(X)

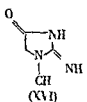
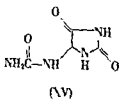
with potassium cyanide and ammonium carbonate. Hydantoin has been studied extensively in connection with the physiological activity of 5,5-disubstituted derivatives and because of the possibility of converting it into α -amino acids. The 5,5-diphenyl derivative, Dilantin sodium (XI), is used as an anticonvulsant in treatment of epilepsy. The 5-ethyl-5-phenyl derivative, Nirvanol



(XIII) an eff t hyp t c Complet t dr l
 i fhyda t n g e t s an α am o a id (XIII-
 XIV) Thi ute c n t t e on of the tand rd



synth f α am a d 13-Dib omo- and
 13-dichl o-5-dimethylhyd t n a e c e n e n t
 e f t e h a l g e
 Alfa t r 5 u d h y d n t (XV) ; the
 nd pr d ct of pu m t b l m in mo t mam



m l (but r i l d n g m a n) a d i t e med
 t i th pu n m t a b l m f c u t a c n s nd
 ampb Cr t n e (XVI) f r m e d r r b l y
 n th body f m r t n d x e r t e d
 B b l g p h y R C F l d f i l d (e d) H e t c y
 d l C m p u d 1 5 1 9 7 K H f m I m d
 d u D i t P 1 1 1 9 5 3

Immunity

A t r m e d n m d i n t d e o t e a t a t f r e
 t n e t n g n t h p a t t h a t n o m a l l y
 p o d e a f c t o n t n e o m o h t s p c i e
 i m m u t v s o m p l r h n t f m a n y c o m
 p o e t m n a t e d h d i b l t h e s c
 q u e d a a f t e a i t a l n t c t w i t h t h e p t h o

Natural immunity D m i c c a t s l i k n e a l y l l
 m m m l e v t a t m e a l s t h y a n t u
 l l y i e p t i b l i t a t h u m a n d m n
 k v o x p i m t a l b r a d l a q u e t h e
 d s e b t f t i g l f t n q u t g e a l l y
 r e c t u b s q n t f t n l t e m a k a b l t h a t
 m l l d g h m r e g e r l l y n e p
 t b l t e v t h m t u l n t p l n t p t h o g n d
 p l t l k w u p t b l t a m a l p t i o
 g A t i t o n t e t o g b t m n r e p t i n
 k w n e t h b a t e r i P d m n a
 p r c y a w i l l f t h o t p l n t n d m n
 Th d t o n f p m t b e t a k e t
 c u n t n a l y n g n a t u r l m m n i t f r m
 p l e m o t k n w t c t a t p u m o l
 p m d r n i r l n d t o n n d n o

mal m e e m a y b k e p t i n d f n i t e l y w i t h o u t i n f c
 t i o n i n c a g e s f i l l e d w i t h m i c e l y i n g o f a n e x
 p e r i m e n t a l p n e u m o c c a l i n f e c t i o n T h e n a t u r a l
 b a r r i e r t o a c q u i r i n g o r t r a n s m i t t i n g t h d s e a e a p
 p e a r a b s o l u t e h e r e n e v e r t h e l e s i f t h e l a r r i e r s
 a e b y p a s s e d b y t h e i n t r a p r i t n e a l i n j e c t i o n o f
 e n o e v i r l e n t r g a m t h e m o r e i t b e c o m e s
 x c e e d i n g l y s e c e p t i b l e t o a f a t a l i n f e c t i o n

Immunity mechanisms A n n a d i n g p a t h g e n
 m a y f a l l t o w n a f o t h o l d b e c a u s e t h e e n v i r o n m e n t
 l a c k o f o r m o r e g r o w t h f a c t o r o r p h y s i c a l c n
 d i t i o n s n e c e s s a y f r m u l t i p l i c a t i o n a s i n t h e c a s e
 o f a n d e n i n e r e q u i r i n g e n t e r i c b a t e i m t h a t c a n
 n t i n f c t t h m e u n l e s t h e h e m e l a d n i n e i
 a l o i n j e c t e d A l t n a t e l y t h e n a t u r a l r e s i s t a n c e
 o f d o g t o n i t r a x a p p e a r s t o b e d u e t o a c t i v e
 d t u c t o n o f t h e o r g a n i s m l y b t n e e u n i
 f o r m l y p r e e n t i n d g i u

S o m e b a t e r i a s u c h a s k n o r t h e m u c u s m e m
 b a n e o f t h e n a s l a n d r p i r a t o r y t r a t m a y
 m e c h a n i c a l l y p r e e n t e n t r a n c e o f m i c r o o r g a n i s m
 o t h e y m y c o n t a i n c h i m i c a l c m p n e n t t h a t p r e
 e t m u l t i p l i c a t i o n o f b a c t e r i a r a c t i v e l d e t r o y
 t h m E n i f t h e y d o n o t c o n t i t u t e a b s o l u t e l a r
 r i r b t h a t o n m y d l a y t h p r o c e s s o f i n
 f e c t i o n u n t i l o t h e r d e f e n s e c a n b e l r u g h t i n t
 p l a y F o r m o s t m g t h e e a t h e v a r i u s f i x e d
 n d w a n d r i g c e l l s t h a t c m p r i e t h p h a g o c y t e
 s y s t e m s T h e r a c t i o n a r e c o m p l e (1) t h e y m a y
 e n g l f a d d e s t o y e r t a i m r r g a s m d i
 r e t h y o (2) t h e y m a y e g l f a n d k i l l o t h e r
 i u l n t o g a n i s m s o n l y f a i d e d b y a c e r y h u
 m a l f f t r s u c h a s t b o d y a n d c m p l e m e n t
 a d (3) i n o t h e r c a s e s w h i l e t h e y m a y e n g u l f
 m o r g n m s b a t t l e g n o c o c c u s t h e l a t t e r
 m a y t h n e r a i t h e c e l l c u f r m t h e a c c e s s
 r y u b t a n s a r m e t m e s c h e m o t h e r a p e u t i c
 d r u g s a n d t h d s e e m a y t h e n p r o g r e s s t a
 c h u s t a t A t b l y c m p l e m e n t a n d t h r e
 e n t l y d e s c r b e d p o p d m a y h e l p n o t o l y t o
 p r p a m c r o o g n i m f r e f f e c t p h a g o c y t o s
 b u t l m y h a e d e c t b a c t e r i c d a l e f f e c t b y
 t h e m e l S e A n t i b o d y C o m p l e m e n t (S e r u m)
 P r o p e r d i

A l t h u t t h e r o u c h e m i c a l a n d m h a n a l
 b a e r t h e p h a g o c y t e s y s t m a n d t h h m o a l
 f a t s p p e r i o c n t i t u t e t h e c t v m e h i s m
 b y w h i h l e l f i m m u t v s a h e d t h e i
 q a l t i e a n d q u a n t i t a t i a c t i v i t y a r e g v e r n e d
 b y a v a r i e t y o f t h o t f a t o r s a m o n g w h i h a
 g n t c o m p o n e n t h a b i d e n t i f i e d W h i l e t h i s
 d f i u l t t o l u t e f o m a n s t a t u a l d e
 s g e s t h t o u s u e p t i b l i t y t r h e u m a t c f e e r
 p o l i m y l i s t u b r l o s l p r o y a n d a y o u
 a l l e g e s i n f l u e n c e d b y h r e d t y M o d i s
 e v i d e n f a g n e t f c t i m m u n i t y h a s c m
 f o m e x p e r i m e n t w i t h a m a l a d p l n t C o p
 w t h g r t e s s t n e t o w h t r u s t y d o t h
 d a e a r m p r i n t r e u l t s f a g r i t u r l r e
 h A g d t t r e s h m o n e s u h a A C T H
 a d e r t s o e a n d r a d i a t i o n a l s o h a m e a u r a b l e
 i f l u s s n m m u t y S e H o r m o n e P h a g o c y
 t o s i s

Immunity and irradiation Although there are suggestions from conflicting data that small doses of x rays may enhance immunity to certain bacterial infection, there is general agreement that larger doses greatly increase the susceptibility to infection and that the result contributes importantly to death from radiation. The mechanisms appear to be multiple and may involve impairments of the phagocytic mechanism, failure of antibody synthesis, or an increased host sensitivity to the bacterial toxins elaborated. In keeping with this, a significant increase in survival to otherwise lethal doses of x rays may be achieved by administration of antibiotics. The decrease in antibody synthesis after irradiation has been followed in immunization studies. The time relations are complex; synthesis appears to be at a minimum about 24 hours following irradiation, is restored rapidly during the first week and completely in 4-8 weeks. Nearly complete restoration of antibody synthesis may be achieved rapidly if the irradiated animal are given certain tissue or bone marrow preparations or are injected with a yeast extract. See ANTIBIOTIC TOXIN BACTERIAL.

Acquired immunity That antibody is at least one component and often the principal component in immunity is indicated by the following observations: (1) a correlation exists in many natural and experimental infections between high susceptibility to an invading microorganism and the initial lack of antibody to that organism; (2) heightened resistance to infection is often present after recovery from a first attack, this resistance usually being accompanied by the appearance of antibody and quantitatively declining with time in some proportion to the decline of the antibody level; (3) both the resistance and the specific antibody level may again be increased by vaccination or other renewed contact with the original microorganism; (4) there is decline and often virtual disappearance of resistance to invasion under conditions that hinder or prevent antibody formation such as x-irradiation, hemorrhage, administration of vitamin deficiency or of disease-agamaglobulinemia; (5) a substantial increase in specific resistance is often afforded by the passive transfer of the corresponding antibody from the serum of a donor animal; and (6) bactericidal reaction exists in the body. See AGAMMA GLOBULINEMIA VACCINATION.

Active immunity The duration of the heightened period of resistance that follows a first attack of an infection, disease, or prophylactic vaccination varies with the particular agent and to some extent with the individual subject. Recovery from certain viral diseases such as yellow fever, measles, chickenpox, usually attended by a lifelong immunity effect, is under the condition of natural exposure. At the other extreme, immunity following recovery from the common cold is very short-lived or nonexistent. In many bacterial diseases such as pneumococcal pneumonia or diphtheria, effects of immunity extend only for a few years at

best unless a renewed antigenic stimulus is applied. This is often accomplished naturally through the carrier state in which either virulent or nonvirulent but immunizing strains are harbored by the subject without evidence of clinical disease. Under favorable conditions the carrier state may also effect a primary immunity.

As a peculiar case, immunity to new infection (superinfection) may hold only a long time after the original infection persists. This is known as infection immunity or premunition. Also in certain cases infection with one viral species may temporarily prevent establishment of a second infection with a related virus or a more virulent strain of the original virus, a phenomenon known as virus interference.

Immunization It is an objective of preventive medicine to produce a prophylactic immunity through vaccination without the inconvenience and often danger of an initial attack of the disease. The oldest procedure, vaccination against smallpox, was introduced by C. Jenner in 1768. It employs a living agent, a calf-pox antigenically related to the smallpox virus. Living attenuated vaccines against tuberculosis, yellow fever, and bubonic plague have also been widely employed. Nonliving vaccines are commonly used for the prophylaxis of the bacterial diseases pertussis, typhoid, and cholera, the viral diseases influenza and poliomyelitis (Salk vaccine), and the bacterial intoxications of diphtheria, tetanus, and typhus. Repeated booster doses of vaccine are commonly given from 15 years after the first immunization course or oftener under conditions of peculiar risk.

Passive immunization Since antibody is not formed in response to an antigen until one week or months after birth, the newborn would be at a disadvantage unless this transition period were provided for. In human and in the animal that occurs during pregnancy through the placental transfer across the placenta of antibody circulating in the maternal blood. In the animal, antibody is transferred via the first milk (colostrum) taken after birth. The antibody does are only slowly eliminated.

Passive transfer of antibody may also be accomplished artificially when there is need of specific protection within the first few hours, usually required for antitoxin synthesis after a snake bite. Before the advent of the sulfonamide antibiotics, a tetanus serum was made from immunized animals treated with clostridia, and gamma globulin was used in the treatment of a male lymphatic leukemia patient. A concentrated preparation of gamma globulin containing antitoxin against malarial malarial infection for prophylaxis of the patient. The preparation afforded only a temporary protection for a few days. The patient died 3 weeks later. See MALARIA. For a list of rapidly eliminated factors, see

ge while ften p o d cing the ynd ome f rum
sck ss. On the rep ated dm n tation f for
egn rum a s n s t d nd dual m y give an
mmed at anaphylactic r cto th t may be evete
or e en fatal if th pr per prec t n re not
b rred

Immunity and chemotherapy Ch motherapy n
an rt of etu s d a ually does not c lude
th dvelopm t f ignifi nt immun ty If how
ev r e po r t the m cr b al ant g n i in uff
ient th p t e t may still r m n p t ble and
f th i k f re n f e t o n i h g a m o e active m
mu ty hould b p o d d by ac m n n Th is
pccly pccent of chem t e app i applied
du g the i ub t on stage of ce t a n d ea es
su h b typhu ce ly a uppre s i e
acti the r ults and u le antib dy i pr e t
lap c r whe the drug d c nnued

[H P T]

Bbl g phy J E. Cu h ng and D H Campbell
Prn ples of Imm n logy 1957 R J Dubo (ed)
Bact r i a d M y c t e Infct on of Man 3d ed
19 8 S Raff i Immun ty 1953 W H T laferr
nd L C Tali ferr Eff ct f x ys on immun ty
f Immun l M 181 l 1951 G A Wil and
A A M l s Topley a d W l s s P r i c p l e s of
B t n o l o g y and Immun ty 2 v l 1955

Immunology

The d i o f b l i l s enc ne rned with
th nat e r equ red re i ta ce f h i h r l i g
f m o h o t to n f c i o w m e r r g n t m
A th f m a l v e e f m m l g y h devel
ped it h ema d e t r i d t the study f
hum r m a l r i t e the o e p d n g
s t f p l a t b i n g g e n e r l y n s d e r d
fall n w t h n the s e p e f p l a n t p a t h o l g y Im
m l y an lect e n d r a w g n m a n y
th r b a h e of k n w l e d The o m p r h n s e
t d t f n e t n d r e i t a c e m y b e d i d e d
a b t a r l n t d t r e l a t i g t h p t h o g e n the
h o t n d t h n t r a c t o n d u g n f e c t S e
A t i c n D I S E A S E I N F E C T I O N P A T H O G E N P L A N T
D I S E A S E T O X I B C T E R A L

F the path g n d t a r d d n t l f i
to and t p o t n t l i e s f u n g d i a e a
e l l a u m d f h r t y d t l t s u r i a l
t h h t f t a n f e c t (r e t a t) s
f n t n e f o r b h t m m i t y a d p b l c
h a l t h The n g n s t x a d o t h r p e a l z e d
h m a l t u e t s f p t h g t e d
n d a b l t u d

Imp t t n f r m a t th h o t i t u d t
p e x (a p r i m a b l) a d d e a t m a l
p h a l g t d n t t l f s t o t h a t m a y
f n f t o n a d t e H t p r i t e
n t t l u d f t m c l x f i c t o n f
d a t y p e b a u e n e m l l p y f i h
t h h m l y t e p r c u S e p t c u s
p x i m y u m m l p l e d s f p u e
m b o l e l f e m p u m n a d r h m a t
f e v e w t h d e m m i l g l i
S e v r t y p f b m t d g n e x t f q t

tating the extent of infect n Many manife-tation
f path logy (for e ample fe er and inflammati n)
n f i e c e t h r e a t i t y f b t h h t and para s i t e
O f p r i m e o n c e r n t i m m u n o l o g y a r e t h e c e l l u l a r
(a c t r s (p h g o c y t e) and the humoral fa t o r s
(a n t i b d i c o m p l e m e n t and p r o p e r d i n) t h a t a r
g n i f a n t a d s i n h t r e i t a n e The p r t e c t e
r o l of a l l e r g y i m u c h l e s c l a r S e A n t i b o d y
B i o a s s a y B i o t e t r i c s C o m p l e m e n t (e r l i)
F e e r H y p e r e n s i t i t y P a t h o l o g y P h a g o c y
t o i s

Immunology is a l o h e a d i y e c e r n e d w i t h a
a y i n g t h e i m m n s t a t u s of t h e h o t t h r o u g h a
v a r i e t y of e r o l g e a l p r o c e d u e a d i n d e v n g n g
m e t h d of i n c r e a s i n g h o t r e i t a n c e t h r o u g h p r o
p h l a t i a e n a t n S e A c c l u t i v i n A n t i b o d y
A n t i b o d y R e a c t i o n B i o l o g i c a l s B l o o d G r o u p s
C o m p l e m e n t F i x a t i o n T e s t H y p e r s e n s i t i t y
I m m u n i t y I s o a n t i g e n P r e c i p i t a t i o n Q u e s t i o n n g
R e a c t i o n S e r o l o g y [H P T]

Impact (impulsive force)

A t o c e w h c h a c t s o n l y d u r i n g a h r t i m i n t e r
v a l b t w h i h i s u f f i c e t l y l r g e t e a u a n a p
p e b l c h n g i n t h e m m e n t m f t h e y t e m
o n w h i c h i t t T h e m m e t u c h a n g p r o d u c e d
b y t h e i m p u l s e f r e s d e r i v e d b y t h e m m n
t u m i m p u l e r l a t i o n F r d i c u n f t h r e l
t n s e I m p u l s e (M E C H A N I C S)

The c n c e p t of i m p l f r e m t u s e f u l
w h e t h e t i m i n w h i c h t h e f r e e a c t s i s s o s h r t
t h a t t h e s y s t e m w h i h i t a c t n d e x n o t m v e a p
p e c i a b l y d n g t h i s t i m U n d e r t h e c n d i t i n
t h e m o m e n t u m f t h y t e m i h g d r a p d l y l v
a f i n t m u n t T h d t l of t h e w a y i n w h i h t h e
f o r e r i e s w i t h t m a u n i m p o r t a n t i c t h e
m m e t u c h n g e d i r m n e d l y b y t h e i m
p l

O r d r i l y t h e f o r c e s o c c u r r i n g n e l l i n a r e
i m p l v f r e e S e C O L L I S I O

I n t h p r e e s i n w h i h i m p u l s f r e e s o u r
m e c h a c a l e n e r g y c a n b e d i p t e d a d a s s i m p l
t o a p p l y t h e o n r v t i n of m h a n c a l e n e r g y
m a y l a d t i o r r e c t e s l t S e C O N S E R V A T I O N O F
E N E R G Y

A p h e n m n o n k w n i m p u l v e l a d i n g o
c u r s w h m a t e a l a r e s u b j c t e d t o h g h p e d
i m p c t o e x p l o s i o n h a r g T h e t d v f f a i l t
of m t r l and r i m p u l s e l o a d s i f e l d w h i c h
b e m n g of g r e a t t e c h n l o g c l i m p o r t a n t e

[F W S]

Bbl g phy R A Becker I t r o d u c t i o n t o
Th e t i c i M e h a 19 4 J S R n e h t n d
J P e a R h i o f M a t a l s d r I m p u l s
L o a d 1954

Impedance acoustic

A t a g n r f t h a t c i m p d e t h
i m p l r a t o f f e t u n d p e v e a g d
r t h e f a c t t h e f l e c t e f l u (v o l u m e
f e t y o p a r t i c l e) t y m u l t i p l e d b y t h e f e
a r) t h u g h t T h e n t t h n e r t e c d /
m t r t h n k a s t e h m I n t h g s y s

tem the unit is the dyne second/centimeter. See SOUND PRESSURE

Specific acoustic impedance is the complex ratio of the effective sound pressure at a point to the effective particle velocity at a point. The unit is the newton second/meter² or the mks rayl. In the cgs system the unit is the dyne second/centimeter² or the rayl. The difference between specific acoustic impedance and acoustic impedance is in the specification of impedance at a point as compared to the average over a surface. The specific acoustic impedance is generally employed in acoustical analyses with the acoustic impedance being computed from it when required.

Characteristic acoustic impedance is the ratio of effective sound pressure at a point to the particle velocity at that point in a free progressive wave. This ratio is equal to the product of the density of the medium ρ_0 times the speed of sound c in the medium. The characteristic impedance of a sound wave is analogous to the characteristic electrical impedance of an infinitely long disipationless transmission line. It is common in acoustical analyses to represent specific acoustic impedances in terms of their ratio to the characteristic impedance of air. For example the specific acoustic impedance Z of a heavy drapery material may be written as $Z = 2\rho_0 c$ meaning that it is twice the characteristic impedance of air.

Impedance analogies Acoustic impedance being a complex quantity can have real and imaginary components analogous to those in an electrical impedance. Following this analogy the real part of the acoustic impedance is termed acoustic resistance and the imaginary part is termed acoustic reactance. See IMPEDANCE ELECTRICAL.

The analogy between acoustic and electrical impedances is extremely useful in the solution of many acoustical problems because it permits the analysis to be conducted by the technique of electrical circuit theory. In the electrical sound pressure is usually taken as analogous to voltage and volume velocity is taken as analogous to current. Employing the electrical variou parts of acoustical circuits can be associated directly with their electrical counterparts.

Acoustic resistance is associated with the dissipation occurring when there is a viscous movement of a quantity of gas through a thin tube or mesh. It is directly analogous to electrical resistance.

Acoustic mass is associated with a mass of air accelerated by a net force which acts to displace the gas without appreciably compressing it. It is analogous to the inductance.

Acoustic compliance is associated with a volume of air that is compressed by a net force without an appreciable average displacement. The center of gravity of the air in the volume acts as a capacitor. Both acoustic mass and acoustic compliance are reactive parts of a acoustic impedance in analogy to their electrical counterparts.

Examples of reactances As simple examples of acoustical reactance consider the low frequency approximation to the impedances of an open ended tube and that of a simple container having a given volume. Neglecting end correction the impedance of the tube is an acoustic mass M given by

$$M = \frac{\rho_0 l}{S}$$

where ρ_0 is the density of air, l the length of the tube and S is its cross sectional area. The impedance of the container is an acoustic compliance C given by

$$C = \frac{V}{\rho_0 c^2}$$

where V is the volume, ρ_0 the density of air and c the velocity of sound.

The absorption of sound by a material is often described in terms of its acoustic impedance. For example the absorption coefficient α of a material exposed to a normally incident plane wave of sound in air is given by the equation

$$\alpha = 1 - \left(\frac{Z - \rho_0 c}{Z + \rho_0 c} \right)^2$$

where Z is the specific acoustic impedance at the surface of the material and $\rho_0 c$ is the characteristic impedance of air. See ABSORPTION (SOUND).

[W J C]

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Impedance electrical

The total opposition that a circuit presents to an alternating current. Impedance measured in ohms may include resistance R , inductive reactance X_L and capacitive reactance X_C . (See REACTANCE RESISTANCE ELECTRICAL.)

The series RLC circuit has the impedance

$$Z = \sqrt{R^2 + (X_L - X_C)^2} \text{ ohm (magnitude)}$$

In terms of complex quantities the impedance is

$$Z = R + j(X_L - X_C)$$

The two components of Z are at right angle to each other in an impedance diagram. Therefore impedance also has an associated angle

$$\theta = \arctan \frac{X_L - X_C}{R}$$

The angle is called the phase shift or power factor angle of the circuit. The current lags or leads the voltage by angle θ depending upon whether X_L is greater than X_C or less than X_C .

Impedance may also be defined as the ratio of the rms voltage to the rms current $Z = E/I$. This is a form of Ohm's law for a circuit. For further discussion of impedance see ALTERNATING CURRENT CIRCUIT THEORY. [H R K]

Impedance mechanical

For y t m e e u t n i m p l e h a r m o n i c m o t n
th m e c h a n i c a l i m p e d a n c e t h e r a t i o f f r e q u e n c y
p a r t i c l e t o t h e v e l o c i t y t h a t w h c h d r
t h y t e m a n d t h e v e l o c i t y i s t h a t f t h e p o i n t f
p p l a t n o f t h e f e e r a t a s t h e i n p u t
d n g p t i m p e d a n c e. I f t h v l t y i s t h a t a t
m e o t h e r p n t t h e r a t i o i s t h e a n i m p e d
a n c r r e p n d g t h e t w o p o t

A s i t h e f e l c t r a l i m p e d a n c e t o w h c h
i t i n a l o o s, m e h a a l p e d a n c e i s a c m p l t
q u a n t y T h e r a t i o t h e m e c h a n i c a l r e t a n c e
d e p e n d s f r e q u e n c y i f t h e d i s t a n c e
p p t o a l t e r t h e i m a g i n a r y p a r t
t h r e f r e c t a c a r i e s w i t h f r e q u e n c y
b e c m g z a t t h r e n a n t a n d i n f i n e a t t h e
a n t e n n a f r e q u e n c y f t h y t m S e e F O R C E D
O S C I L L A T I O N H A R M O N I C M O T I O N I M P E D A N C E,
A O S T I C I M P E D A N C E E L E C T R I C A L. [M G R J]

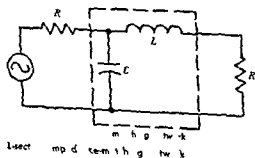
B l o g r a p h y N W M L a c h l a n T h o r y o f
b t i o n s 1951

Impedance matching

T h e f e l c t r o n i c s t a n d a r d c o s t o e s t a b l i s h
t h e d i s t a n c e w h c h t h i m p e d a n c e f a s l a d
q u a l t h e i n t e r n a l i m p e d a n c e f t h u c T h
d i t f e d m a t h p d s f o r t h e
m a x i m u m t r a n s m i s s i o n o f p o w e r f r o m t h e
l o a d t o t h e t r a n s m i t t e r f r a m p l e t i s d
i e d t d e l r m a m u n p o w e r f o m t h p w e
a m p l i f i e r t h a n t e l i n d m p l i f i e r t h
q u e m t t d l e s a m m f w e r t o t h
l u d p a k

T h m a m m p w t r a n s f e r t h e o m o f l e c t
t i t w k t h o r y t e t h a t t a n y g n f r e
q u e y t h m a m m p w e s t a n d e d f o m
t h o a t h e l d w h e n t h l a d i m p e d a n c e i s
q u a l t t h i g t f t h g e r a t m p d a n e
T h f t h g e a t o e i t t h l o a d m t
b e i n q u a l t t h g e a t o i t n
f r m a m u n p o r t b d e l e d f r m t h g e n
t t t h e l d w h t h e s o d i n e a t s
f e d t h p w e d l a w i t h 50% e f f i c i e n c y
t h t m u c h p d p a t d t h e n t
l i m p e d c f t h g e e t a s d e l v e d t o
t h l i s

I m p e d a n c e m a t c h i n g n e t w o r k I g n l t h
l a d i m p e d a n c e w i l l t b t h p r o p l e f
m a m m p r t a i A t w o r k m p d o f



i n d u c t o r s a n d c a p a c i t o r s m a y b e i n t e r c h a n g e d b e t w e e n
t h e l a d a n d t h e g e n e r a t o r t o s e e n t t h e g e n
e a t r a n i m p e d a n c e t h a t i s t h e c o n j u g a t e f t h e
g e n e r a t o r i m p e d a n c e S i n c e t h e m a t c h i n g n e t w o r k
i s c o m p o s e d o f l i n e a r e l e m e n t s w h c h i n t h i d e a l c a s e o f
n o r e s i s t a n c e i n t h e i n d u c t o r a n d p e r f e c t c a p a c i t o r s
d o n o t a b s o r b p o w e r a l l o f t h e p o w e r d e l i v e r e d
t o t h e m a t c h i n g n e t w o r k i s d e l i v e r e d t o t h e l a d
A n e x a m p l e o f a n L s e c t i o n m a t c h i n g n e t w o r k i s
i l l u s t r a t e d M a t c h i n g n e t w o r k o f t h i s t y p e a r
d n r a d i o f r e q u e n c y c i r c u i t s T h e v a l u e f o r i n
d u c t a n c e a n d c a p a c i t a n c e a r e h o w e v e r a t t a y f o r t h e
r e q u i r e m e n t s o f t h e m a x i m u m p o w e r t r a n s f e r t h e
o m T h e p o w e r d i s s i p a t e d i n t h e m a t c h i n g n e t
w o r k i s a s m a l l f r a c t i o n o f t h a t d e l i v e r e d t o t h e
l o a d b e a s t h e i m p e d a n c e a c c l o s e a p p r o x
i m a t i n f i d e l i m p e d a n c e

T r a n s f o r m e r s T h e i m p e d a n c e m e a s u r e d a t t h e
t r a n s m i s s i o n e n d o f a n o n r e t r a n s f o r m e r
i s a p p r o x i m a t e l y t h e a l i e f t h i m p e d a n c e
a n c e c a n b e a r t h e t h e r t r a n s m i s s i o n m u l t i
p l i e d b y t h e s q u a r e o f t h e t u r n r a t i o T h s i d e t h
l a d a n d g e n e r a t o r i m p e d a n c e s r e r e t a c e t h e
t u r n r a t i o c a n b e h o w e v e r t o m a t c h t h l a d r e s
i s a e t o t h e g e n e r a t o r r e s t a n c e f o r m a x i m u m
p o w e r t a n f e r I f t h g e r a t o r a n d l a d i m p e d
c a n c e n t r a n c e t h e t r a n s f e r m e r c a n n o t
b e d e s i g n e d f o r m a t c h i n g b e c a u s e i t c a n n o t c h a n g e t h e
l o a d i m p e d a n c e t o t h e c o n j u g a t e f t h e g e n e r a t o r
i m p e d a n c e (t h L s e c t i o n m a t c h i n g n e t w o r k a n)
T h t u r n r a t i o c a n b e h o w e v e r t d l i e r
t h e m a x i m u m p o w e r a n d t h e n d i n g t h m a x
i m u m b e g l e s t h e t h e o r e t i c a l m a x i m u m

I n c o r d i n a t i o n f o r m e s a e u e d f o r i m p e d a n c e
m a t c h i n g i s t h a d i s t a n c e d i s t a n c e f r e q u e n c y
a g T h e p o w e r d i s s i p a t e d i n t h e c r e i n r e a e s
w i t h f r e q u e n c y b e c a u s e o f h y t e r e A b o v e t h e
f r e q u e n c y a g t w h c h i n r e d t r a n s f o r m e r
n b e u e d t h e a c r e t r a n s f o r m e r o r t r a n s f o r m
s w i t h p w d e e d i t l g a s a n b e u d e f f e c t
e l y H o w e v e r t h e c a s e s t h e t u r n s r a t i o n
q u a d i m p e d a n c e t n f o r m i n g p r o p e r t y i n
l i n g r t u S i n c e t h e t r a n s f e r m e r u s u a l l y p a r t
f a t n d c u t o t h e r f a t i n f l i n c t i e d
g n f i t h e a n f r m e r

T h i m p e d a n c e t a n f r i n g p o p e r t y o f a n i r n
e d t r a n s f e r m e r n o t l w a s u e d t o d i m a i
m m p w t r a n s f r F o a m p l i f i e r t h e d e s i g n
f p w a m p l i f i e r s t g m a u d a m p l i f i e r s t h
i m p a n c e p e s a d o t h t o b f t d i s t a n c e
A t d y f a g i v e c i t a n o f t e n h w i t h t a t
g i v e t p u t p o w e r l e v e l u a l l t h e m a x i m u m e x
p e c t e d t h e a v a l u e f o r t h l o a d r e s t a n c e
w h c h w i l l m i n i m e a h m i m p o n t i t h
h a m n d s t o r t c h a s t h e c o n d o t h d
h r m n T h t a f i m e t r a n s f e r m e r i s c l e c t
t o p e n t h s r e t a c e t o t h e t b e S T R A N S
O N I E R

C a t h o d e f o l l o w e r I f t r u c c r e v r y s g
n l s o u e o f l a g i r n l i m p e d a n c e m t o f t e
b e c n e e d t a l o w i m p e d a n c e l d I f t h u e
w e r n t d d r c t l y t o t h l o a d i t u a t n o f

on the unit: the dyne-second centimeter. See SOUND, PRELUDE.

Specific acoustic impedance: the complex ratio of the effective sound pressure at a point to the effective particle velocity at a point. The unit is the newton-second meter or the mks. r.s.l. In the cgs system the unit is the dyne-second centimeter or the r.s.l. The difference between specific acoustic impedance and acoustic impedance is in the specification of impedance at a point, as compared to the average over a wave. The specific acoustic impedance is generally employed in acoustical analyses, with the acoustic impedance being computed from it when required.

Characteristic acoustic impedance: the ratio of effective sound pressure at a point to the particle velocity at that point in a free progressive wave. This ratio is equal to the product of the density of the medium ρ times the speed of sound c in the medium. The characteristic impedance of a sound wave is equal to the characteristic electrical impedance of an infinitely long, dissipationless transmission line. It is common in acoustical analyses to represent specific acoustic impedances in terms of their ratio to the characteristic impedance of air. For example, the specific acoustic impedance Z of a heavy drapery material may be written as $Z = 2\rho_0 c$, meaning that it is twice the characteristic impedance of air.

Impedance analogies. Acoustic impedance, being a complex quantity, can have real and imaginary components analogous to those in an electrical impedance. Following this analogy the real part of the acoustic impedance is termed acoustic resistance, and the imaginary part is termed acoustic reactance. **S. IMPEDANCE ELECTRICAL.**

The analogy between acoustic and electrical impedance is extremely useful in the solution of many acoustical problems because it permits the analogy to be conducted by the techniques of electrical circuit theory. In these analyses sound pressure is usually taken as analogous to voltage and (time) element is taken as analogous to current. Employing these analogies, any part of an acoustical circuit can be associated directly with their electrical counterparts.

Acoustic resistance: is associated with the dissipation losses occurring when there is a viscous movement of a quantity of gas through a thin tube or mesh. It is directly analogous to electrical resistance.

Acoustic mass: is associated with the displacement of a mass of air or other fluid by a net force which acts to displace the gas with an appreciable compression or a compressionless inductance.

Acoustic compliance: is associated with a volume of gas that is compressed by a net force without an appreciable displacement of the center of gravity of the air in the volume acting as a capacitance. Both acoustic mass and acoustic compliance are reactances, parts of a complex impedance in analogy to their electrical counterparts.

Examples of reactances: A simple example of acoustical reactances: consider the low-frequency approximation to the impedance of an open-ended tube and that of a simple container having a given volume. Neglecting end correction, the impedance of the tube is an acoustic mass M given by

$$M = \frac{\rho_0 l}{S}$$

where ρ_0 is the density of air, l is the length of the tube, and S is its cross-sectional area. The impedance of the container is an acoustic compliance, C , given by

$$C = \frac{V}{\rho_0 c^2}$$

where V is the volume, ρ the density of air and c the velocity of sound.

The absorption of sound by a material is often described in terms of its acoustical impedance. For example, the absorption coefficient α of a material exposed to a normally incident plane wave of sound in air is given by the equation

$$\alpha = 1 - \left(\frac{Z - \rho_0 c}{Z + \rho_0 c} \right)^2$$

where Z is the specific acoustic impedance at the surface of the material and $\rho_0 c$ is the characteristic impedance of air. See ABORPTION (SOUND). [W.J.G.]

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Impedance electrical

The total opposition that a circuit presents to an alternating current. Impedance is measured in ohms, may include resistance R , inductive reactance X_L , and capacitive reactance X_C . (See REACTANCE ELECTRICAL.)

The series RLC circuit has the impedance

$$Z = \sqrt{R^2 + (X_L - X_C)^2} \text{ ohm (magnitude)}$$

In terms of complex quantities, the impedance is

$$Z = R + j(X_L - X_C)$$

The two components of Z are at right angles to each other in an impedance diagram. Therefore impedance also has an associated angle

$$\theta = \arctan \frac{X_L - X_C}{R}$$

The angle is called the phase, or power factor angle of the circuit. The current lags or leads the voltage by angle θ depending upon whether X_L is greater than, or less than, X_C .

Impedance may also be defined as the ratio of the rms voltage to the rms current, $Z = E/I$. This is a form of Ohm's law for ac circuits. For further discussion of impedance, see ALTERNATING CURRENT CIRCUIT THEORY. [B.L.R.]

Impedance mechanical

For system receiving mechanical motion, the mechanical impedance is the ratio of force to velocity. If the force is that which drives the system and the velocity is that of the point of application of the force, then the input or driving impedance. If the velocity is that at the output point, the ratio is the transfer impedance or power ratio.

At the electrical impedance which has the same mechanical impedance as a complex quantity. The real part is the mechanical resistance independent of frequency, the imaginary part is the mechanical reactance, which varies with frequency because of the resonance and inertia at the system. **FORCED OSCILLATION HARMONIC MOTION IMPEDANCE OF ACOUSTIC IMPEDANCE OF ELECTRICAL.** [MGR]

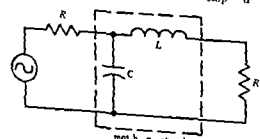
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Impedance matching

The function of impedance matching is to transfer the maximum power from the source to the load. The impedance of the source and the impedance of the load must be equal for maximum power transfer. In a series circuit, the impedance of the load must be equal to the impedance of the source. In a parallel circuit, the admittance of the load must be equal to the admittance of the source.

The maximum power transfer theorem states that the maximum power is transferred from a source to a load when the load impedance is equal to the complex conjugate of the source impedance. This is true for both AC and DC circuits. In AC circuits, the impedance is a complex number with a real part (resistance) and an imaginary part (reactance). The complex conjugate is obtained by changing the sign of the imaginary part.

Impedance matching network In general, the impedance matching network will transfer the maximum power from the source to the load.



Series impedance matching network

ductors and capacitors may be inserted between the load and the generator to adjust the generator impedance. Since the matching network is composed of elements which in the ideal case are lossless, the incident and reflected power are equal. The power delivered to the load is the power delivered to the matching network. An example of a lossless matching network is a transformer. The type of matching network used depends on the frequency of the signal and the impedance of the load and the generator. The maximum power transfer theorem states that the maximum power is transferred when the load impedance is equal to the complex conjugate of the source impedance.

Transformers The impedance measured at the terminals of one winding of an iron-core transformer is approximately the value of the impedance connected across the other terminals multiplied by the square of the turns ratio. This is the load and generator impedances are equal to the turns ratio. The impedance of the load and the impedance of the generator must be equal for maximum power transfer. If the generator and load impedances are not equal, the transformer cannot be used for matching because it cannot change the load impedance to the conjugate of the generator impedance (the L-match network). The turns ratio can be chosen to give the maximum power transfer. The maximum power transfer is achieved when the load impedance is equal to the complex conjugate of the source impedance.

In an ideal transformer, the impedance matching is achieved by the turns ratio. The power delivered to the load is the power delivered to the source. The frequency of the signal does not affect the impedance matching. The transformer can be used for impedance matching in both AC and DC circuits. The transformer is a passive device and does not add any noise to the signal.

The impedance of an inductor is proportional to the frequency of the signal. The impedance of a capacitor is inversely proportional to the frequency of the signal. The impedance of a resistor is independent of the frequency of the signal. The impedance of a network is the sum of the impedances of the individual components. The impedance of a network is a complex number with a real part (resistance) and an imaginary part (reactance).

Cathode follower In the triode connection, the output voltage is equal to the input voltage. The impedance of the cathode follower is high. The cathode follower is used for impedance matching in audio amplifiers. The cathode follower is a voltage buffer and does not provide any voltage gain.

the signal would result. To reduce this attenuation a cathode follower is connected between the source and the load. The input impedance of the cathode follower is high, more nearly matching the large source impedance, and the output impedance is low, more nearly matching the low load impedance. In the usual case the cathode follower appears as almost no load upon the signal source. If the object were the delivery of maximum power to the load, it might be possible to design the cathode follower to have an output resistance equal to the load resistance, a summing that the load is a resistance. (Special audio amplifiers have been designed to use cathode followers rather than a transformer to connect the loudspeaker to the power amplifier. A number of cathode followers connected in parallel present an equivalent output resistance equal to the load resistance.) In many cases maximum power transfer is not the goal; the cathode follower is introduced primarily to reduce to a minimum the attenuation of the signal. See VOLTAGE AMPLIFIER [H F K]

Bibliography E. W. Kimbark, *Electrical Transmission of Power and Signals* 1949

Impedance measurements high frequency

The electrical measurement of the complex ratio of voltage to current in a given circuit at frequencies from several hundred kilocycles (kc) to 100,000 megacycles (Mc). This frequency range includes the medium frequency band and higher frequency bands. See ELECTRICAL MEASUREMENTS

At lower frequencies impedances may be accurately measured by standard techniques for measuring resistance, capacitance and inductance. Standard resistors, capacitors and inductors are often used as comparisons for unknown impedances. At lower frequencies these are very accurate standards. See CAPACITANCE MEASUREMENT INDUCTANCE MEASUREMENT RESISTANCE MEASUREMENT

At higher frequencies the slight imperfections in impedance standards become objectionable and unwanted impedances occur in circuit connections. Distributed parameter impedance standards consisting of coaxial transmission lines are useful at frequencies at which the distinction between distributed and ideal parameters becomes hazy. At the higher frequencies where mechanical dimensions become comparable with the wavelength resonant cavities and wave guides are used because they incorporate simple boundary conditions for field calculation. Connection errors are avoided whenever possible by substitution measurements in which undetected impedances are cancelled out. Two general methods are employed: resonance and null indication.

RESONANCE METHODS

Resonance is a typical phenomenon at radio frequency. It is readily observed and reproduced and

defines a circuit condition for which the interrelationship among the component impedance is known. It is therefore an excellent indicator for measurement purposes. Either series resonant or parallel resonant circuits can be used. Series resonant circuits are best suited for measuring low impedances and conversely parallel resonant circuits for low admittances. Both methods determine the quadrature or reactive component of impedance from the change in resonant capacitance when the unknown impedance is inserted into the circuit. They differ in the method of measurement of the real or resistive component of impedance. See RESONANCE (ALTERNATING CURRENT CIRCUITS)

Series resonance methods Two methods of obtaining the necessary data to permit solving for the unknown impedance are employed.

Resistance variation method A short circuiting link is first connected across the terminals shown in Fig. 1 and the circuit is tuned to resonance as indicated by a maximum current reading. This current I_1 is then given by

$$I_1 = \frac{E}{R} \quad (1)$$

where E is the source voltage and R the total circuit resistance.

The short circuiting line is then replaced by the unknown impedance Z and resonance reestablished. The new current I_2 is

$$I_2 = \frac{E}{R + R} \quad (2)$$

where R is the resistive component of the unknown impedance Z .

Finally the unknown impedance is replaced by a known standard resistance R and resonance is reestablished. The current I is

$$I = \frac{E}{R + R} \quad (3)$$

Combining Eqs. (1), (2) and (3) one obtains for the unknown resistance

$$R = R \frac{I_2(I_1 - I_2)}{I_1(I_1 - I_2)} \quad (4)$$

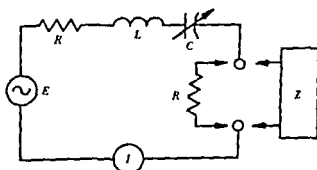


Fig. 1 Series resonance circuit for resistance measurement

The unknown reactance X is given by

$$X = \frac{1}{\omega} \left(\frac{1}{C} - \frac{1}{C'} \right) \quad (5)$$

where C_1 and C are the capacitances of the variable capacitor in resonance with the short-circuiting link and the unknown impedance in turn respectively at a given angular frequency.

Resonance method. This method differs from the substitution method only in the measurement of the unknown reactance. The circuit is as shown in Fig. 3. The circuit is connected from the capacity of the capacitor to the detector by a known mutual inductance.

The circuit is tuned to resonance and the unknown reactance is determined. At the resonance frequency the reactance of the capacitor is equal to the reactance of the unknown reactance. The circuit can be shown that

$$R = \frac{1}{2\omega} \left(\frac{1}{C} - \frac{1}{C'} \right) \quad (6)$$

A method with the help of a variable capacitor and a variable resistor is used to determine the unknown impedance Z by the unknown impedance Z and a resistance R_2 which is equal to $R + R_2$. This substitution method can be given by

$$R = R_1 - R \quad (7)$$

$$Y = \frac{1}{\omega} \left(\frac{1}{C_2} - \frac{1}{C} \right) \quad (8)$$

Parallel resonance methods. The parallel resonance method is one of the series resonance method. The same principle is used to find the unknown reactance. The circuit is as shown in Fig. 4. The circuit is connected from the capacity of the capacitor to the detector by a known mutual inductance.

Conductance method. This method is used to find the unknown conductance. The circuit is as shown in Fig. 5. The circuit is connected from the capacity of the capacitor to the detector by a known mutual inductance.

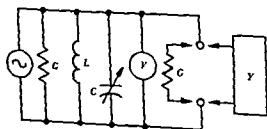


Fig. 2 Parallel resonance method circuit diagram

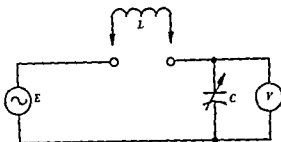


Fig. 3 Series resonance method circuit diagram

$$G = G \frac{I_1(I_1 - I_2)}{I_2(I_1 - I_2)} \quad (9)$$

$$B = \omega(C_1 - C_2) \quad (10)$$

where the subscripts refer to the three measurements respectively.

Susceptance method. This method is the dual of the conductance method. At the resonance frequency C and C' for which the circuit is in resonance, the circuit conductance G changes becomes 0.71 and

$$G = \frac{\omega}{L} (C' - C) \quad (11)$$

The admittance of the circuit in the resonance method then yields

$$G = G - G_1 \quad (12)$$

$$B = \omega(C_1 - C) \quad (13)$$

The above methods give accurate results with fairly simple equipment but are not readily made direct reading and are therefore not used as the basic for commercial instruments.

Resonant rise method. A circuit that has been widely used commercially to measure the storage factor Q of coils is shown in Fig. 3. Commercially the instrument known as a Q meter (see Q METER). The natural frequency of the series resonant circuit is given by

$$f = \frac{1}{2\pi\sqrt{LC}}$$

and the voltage across the tuning capacitor C is

$$V = IX_C = IX_L \quad (14)$$

where R is the total circuit resistance and X and X_L are the reactances of the capacitor C and inductor L respectively. The voltage ratio V/E is the Q factor.

$$\frac{V}{E} = \frac{X_L}{R} \quad (15)$$

If the reactance and inductance of the circuit are small compared with the resistance and inductance of the coil L , the voltage V will be directly proportional to the storage factor

the signal would be lost. To reduce this attenuation a cathode follower is connected between the source and the load. The input impedance of the cathode follower is high more nearly matching the large source impedance and the output impedance is low more nearly matching the low load impedance. In the usual case the cathode follower appears as almost no load upon the signal source. If the object were the delivery of maximum power to the load it might be possible to design the cathode follower to have an output resistance equal to the load resistance assuming that the load is a resistance. (Special audio amplifiers have been designed to use cathode followers rather than a transformer to connect the loudspeaker to the power amplifier. A number of cathode followers connected in parallel present an equivalent output resistance equal to the load resistance.) In many cases maximum power transfer is not the goal; the cathode follower is introduced primarily to reduce to a minimum the attenuation of the signal. See VOLTAGE AMPLIFIER [H F K]

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Impedance measurements high frequency

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RESONANCE METHODS

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Resistance variation method A short circuiting link is first connected across the terminals shown in Fig. 1 and the circuit is tuned to resonance as indicated by a maximum current reading. This current I_1 is then given by

$$I_1 = \frac{E}{R} \quad (1)$$

where E is the source voltage and R the total circuit resistance.

The short circuiting line is then replaced by the unknown impedance Z and resonance reestablished. The new current I_2 is

$$I_2 = \frac{E}{R + R} \quad (2)$$

where R is the resistive component of the unknown impedance Z .

Finally the unknown impedance is replaced by a known standard resistance R and resonance is reestablished. The current I_3 is

$$I_3 = \frac{E}{R + R} \quad (3)$$

Combining Eqs. (1), (2) and (3) one obtains for the unknown resistance

$$R = R \frac{I_2(I_1 - I_3)}{I_3(I_1 - I_2)} \quad (4)$$

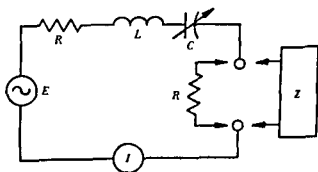


Fig. 1 Series resonance circuit for determination of unknown impedance

The unknown reactance is given by

$$X = \frac{1}{\omega} \left(\frac{1}{C_2} - \frac{1}{C} \right) \quad (5)$$

here C and C_2 are the settings of the variable capacitor for resonance with the short-circuiting link of the unknown impedance in the circuit respectively at two different frequencies.

Reactance at resonance. This method differs from the reactance method only in the measurement of the unknown reactance component. The reactance is deduced from the capacitance change necessary to tune the circuit by a known amount.

The circuit is first tuned to resonance and the reactance of the circuit is detuned and the capacitance C_1 and C_2 for which the current becomes 0.707 are determined. At this setting the reactance of the circuit is equal to the reactance R and it can be shown that

$$R = \frac{1}{2\omega} \left(\frac{1}{C_2} - \frac{1}{C_1} \right) \quad (6)$$

A measurement with the short-circuiting link is possible to determine R which is equal to the total circuit reactance R and measurement with the short-circuiting link is possible by the unknown impedance Z yields a reactance R which is equal to $R + R$. This is the same measurement.

$$R = R_1 - R \quad (7)$$

$$X = \frac{1}{\omega} \left(\frac{1}{C} - \frac{1}{C_2} \right) \quad (8)$$

Parallel resonance methods. The parallel resonance method is one of the resonance methods. The method is a general technique used to find the value of the reactance of the circuit. The reactance of the circuit is measured by the parallel resonance method. The reactance of the circuit is measured by the parallel resonance method.

Conductance method. This method is used to find the conductance of the circuit. The conductance of the circuit is measured by the conductance method. The conductance of the circuit is measured by the conductance method.

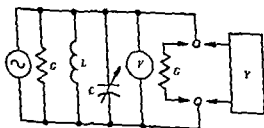


Fig 2 Parallel resonance method for measurement of reactance

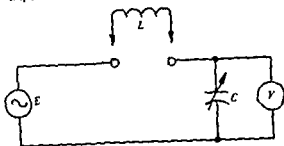


Fig 3 Series resonance method for measurement of inductance

$$G = G \frac{f_1(f_1 - f_2)}{f_2(f_1 - f_2)} \quad (9)$$

$$B = \omega(C_1 - C_2) \quad (10)$$

where the subscripts refer to the three measurements respectively.

Susceptance variation method. This method is the dual of the reactance-variation method. At the capacitance setting C and C_2 for which the circuit susceptance equals the circuit inductance G the voltage becomes 0.707 and

$$G = \frac{\omega}{2} (C_2 - C) \quad (11)$$

The same principle of measurement as in the reactance-variation method yields

$$G = G_2 - G_1 \quad (12)$$

$$B = \omega(C_1 - C_2) \quad (13)$$

The same method gives accurate results with fairly simple equipment but is not readily made direct reading and are therefore not used as the basis of commercial instruments.

Resonant rise method. A circuit that has been widely used commercially to measure the storage factor Q of coils is shown in Fig 3. Commercially the instrument is known as a Q meter (see Q meter). The resonant current I in this series circuit is a function of the circuit parameters.

$$I = \frac{V}{R}$$

and the voltage V across the tuning capacitor C by

$$V = IX_C = IX_L \quad (14)$$

where R is the total circuit resistance and X_C and X_L are the reactance of the capacitor C and inductor L respectively. The voltage ratio V/E is the Q .

$$\frac{V}{E} = \frac{X_L}{R} \quad (15)$$

If the reactance of the circuit is the rest of the circuit is negligibly small compared with the reactance and inductance of the coil L the voltage V will be directly proportional to the inductance L .

Q of the coil In the Q meter illustrated in Fig 4 the voltmeter scale is calibrated directly in Q and the value of the unknown inductance is determined from the calibrated capacitor setting by means of the relation

$$L = \frac{1}{\omega^2 C} \quad (16)$$

Knowing L the effective resistance of the inductance is given by

$$R_L = \frac{\omega L}{Q} \quad (17)$$

Q of a tuned circuit or cavity Several methods of measuring Q are available

Resonance curve method If frequency is varied so that the current in a tuned circuit or cavity goes through resonance and the frequencies f and f_0 for which the current is reduced to 0.707 of its maximum (half power points) are noted it can be shown that

$$Q_0 = \frac{\omega_0}{\omega - \omega} = \frac{f_0}{f - f} \quad (18)$$

where the subscript 0 refers to values at resonance. For high Q cavities at microwave frequencies this measurement is usually performed by coupling the generator and detector to the magnetic field with small pick up coils so oriented that direct pick up from one to the other is negligible. If the couplings are too strong the resonance curve will be broadened by losses coupled in from the generator and detector. As they are weakened however this broadening will disappear and the observed curve will be that of the cavity alone.

Decrement method The storage factor Q of a resonant device represents the ratio of the maximum energy stored in the electric or magnetic field during a cycle to the amount of energy dissipated in that cycle. It can also be measured therefore by observing the decay in a oscillation amplitude when the exciting signal is cut off. The current in the tuned circuit then follows the law

$$I = I_0 e^{-(R/2L)t} = I_0 e^{-(\omega_0/Q_0)t} \quad (19)$$

where t is time, I_0 the initial resonant current and the other symbols carry their previous connotation. The cavity Q_0 is then related to the time interval Δt during which the current decays by a factor of $e = 2.71828$ by

$$Q_0 = \frac{\omega_0 \Delta t}{2} \quad (20)$$

See TIME CONSTANT

This measurement is carried out with a pulsed modulated generator, a detector having a large bandwidth compared with that of the cavity to be measured and a cathode-ray oscilloscope. The detected signal which measures the cavity current is applied to the vertical plates of the oscilloscope and the horizontal deflection is synchronized with the modulating pulse to produce a stationary pattern. This pattern may be scaled directly off the screen for rough measurements or in a more complex set up the pattern may be compared with the discharge curve of an RC network excited by the modulating pulse.

R_0/Q_0 of a resonant cavity At microwave frequencies where a resonant cavity may be difficult to analyze as an equivalent IC resonant circuit it is often necessary to measure the quantity

$$\frac{R_0}{Q_0} = \sqrt{\frac{L}{C}} = \omega_0 L = \frac{1}{\omega_0 C} \quad (21)$$

to obtain in conjunction with a measurement of Q_0 a value for R the effective hunt resistance of the cavity. This is most often done by the perturbation method.

If C can be varied in an IC circuit it can be shown that

$$\frac{R_0}{Q_0} = -\frac{2}{\omega_0^2} \frac{d\omega}{dC} \quad (22)$$

Analysis of the field in a microwave cavity when a perturbing object is introduced can by analogy be used to relate the resultant change in frequency to R_0/Q_0 .

NULL METHODS

A phenomenon at least equal in importance to resonance is an indicator of precluded oscillation condition—balance. The precision with which the difference between two alternating voltage angles reduced to zero can easily reach a few parts in a million. Null methods are almost universally used for the most precise measurements.

Radio frequency bridges At radio frequencies the problems arising from variable parameter make up a variable air capacitor an impedance standard in substitution method. A device of this null device a frequency variant circuit. Symbolic circuit that are particularly well adapted for the frequency have their field in the field. The widely used commercial instrument are the

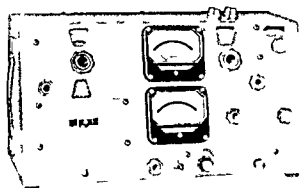


Fig 4 Boonton Q meter used to measure distributed constant Q of the frequency generator from 50 kc to 50 Mc (Boonton Radio Corp.)

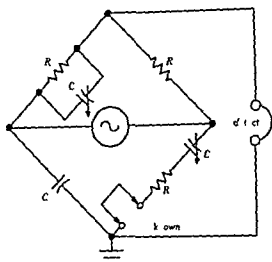


Fig 5 Capacitance bridge (R d r d o f e q c y b d g)

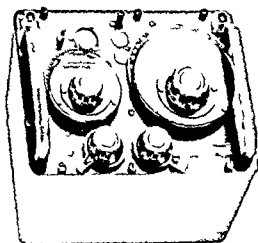


Fig 6 Capacitance bridge (R d C)

General Radio rf bridge The balance condition for this bridge is given in Fig 5 and 6. It is used to measure the unknown reactive component X of impedance in terms of the known bridge components R_B , C , C_A and C_F .

$$R = \frac{R_B}{C_A} (C_{A2} - C_{A1}) \quad (23)$$

$$X = \frac{1}{\omega} \left(\frac{1}{C_{F2}} - \frac{1}{C_{F1}} \right) \quad (24)$$

As indicated both the resistive and reactive component are measured in terms of capacitance differences. The bridge is used to refer to the ratio of the terminal capacitance first short circuited and second connected to the unknown impedance. The dial of the capacitor C is calibrated in ohms independent of frequency and the dial of the capacitor C_F in ohms at a frequency of 1 Mc. At other frequencies the reading of the reactance dial must be divided by the frequency in megacycles. The instrument covers the frequency range from 400 kc to 60 Mc. The reactance extends to 50 ohms and 120 Mc.

Wayne Kerr rf bridge This bridge is a center-tapped transformer with a 180-degree coupling between windings to develop equal and opposite voltages in the standard and unknown arms (Fig 7). A mutual transformer with one winding referred up to the output of the detector Δ shown in Fig 7 is used to modify the effect of the capacitance and inductance standard C and G respectively. In terms of the number of turns n between the center tap and the unknown admittance (n_1) the conductance standard (n_2) and the capacitance standard (n_3) the balance conditions are

$$G = \frac{n_1}{n} G \quad (25)$$

$$B = \frac{3}{n} \omega C \quad (26)$$

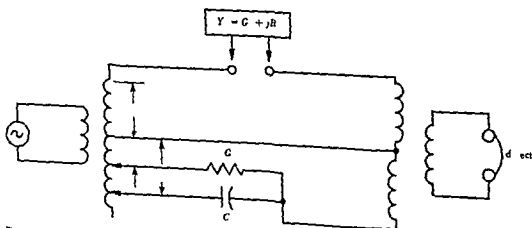


Fig 7 Simplified detector-to-arm bridge

Combinations of switched fixed value standards and continuously adjustable standards yield scales that are calibrated directly in conductance and capacitance independent of frequency. Similar taps on the unknown side of the center tap are used to switch admittance ranges. The instrument covers the frequency range from 15 kc to 5 Mc; other versions extend the range from 15 kc to 250 Mc.

Bridges of this kind are particularly well adapted to the measurement of the direct component of balanced and other three terminal admittances because the shunt components can be thrown across the low impedance transformer windings by grounding of the center tap and eliminated from the measurement. They can also be adapted to the measurement of the transfer impedance of four terminal devices.

Boonton RX meter. This bridge uses the same configuration of bridge arms as the General Radio bridge but measures the unknown as an admittance in the A arm rather than an impedance in the P arm. For this inversion the balance equations become

$$G = \frac{C_A}{R_B} \left(\frac{1}{C_{P2}} - \frac{1}{C_{P1}} \right) \quad (27)$$

$$B = \omega(C_{A1} - C_{A2}) \quad (28)$$

The RY meter differs from conventional bridges in that the bridge arms are excited by out of phase voltages from a transformer. At balance the junction point voltages are equal in magnitude but opposite in phase. The null voltage is therefore obtained between the center point of a capacitive voltage divider and ground as shown in Fig. 8.

Microwave null devices. At frequencies so high that the distributed nature of parameters must be

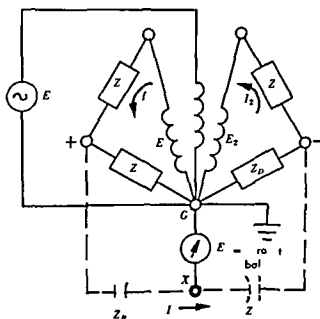


Fig. 8. Cutschmatch box for RX meter. Special three-winding transformer couples out of phase voltages from the generator to the two halves of the bridge and the two capacitors Z_R and Z_P produce a center tap to feed the detector.

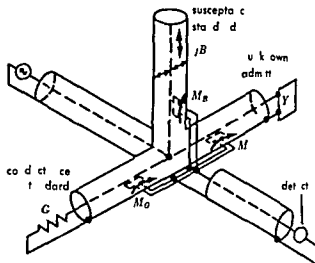


Fig. 9. Functional diagram of General Radio admittance meter. The three loops M_B , M_G , and M sample the magnetic fields in the susceptance standard and unknown admittance arms respectively and combine the outputs in the detector arm.

taken into account the principle of null comparison can still be used to effect precise adjustment. There are three widely used commercial instruments for this frequency range.

General Radio admittance meter. This instrument shown in Figs. 9 and 10 samples the magnetic field arising from the current in each of three coaxial transmission lines through adjustable loops (M_B , M_G , and M) coupled to their center conductors at their junction point in the T configuration shown in the figure. All the lines are fed at this point from a common voltage and thus the currents bear the same relationship to each other as the respective admittances seen looking into each of the lines. One of the lines is terminated in its characteristic impedance Z_0 to prevent a standard conductance G equal to $1/Z_0$; one is terminated in an eighth wavelength transmission line to prevent a standard susceptance B equal to $1/jZ_0$; and the third is terminated in the unknown admittance Y equal to $G + jB$. The coupling loop can be rotated by means of shaft-carrying dial, the first two being calibrated in conductance and susceptance respectively, and the third in admittance range. The loop that couples to the susceptance range is adjustable over a 180° range to indicate either positive or negative susceptance. The eighth wavelength line is set to the proper length for the operating frequency so that the conductance and susceptance scale are direct reading in terms of frequency. If the unknown is connected to the instrument by a half-wave line, the reading of the scale becomes directly proportional to impedance. The instrument is direct reading for the frequency range from 10 to 1000 Mc.

Transfer function and admittance bridge. A modification of the admittance meter measures the output current of a four-terminal network limitance standard in a T configuration similar to the described above, thereby making possible the measurement of the transfer impedance of four-terminal devices.

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p t t i put olt a d output to put curr nt
A nt r ha geabl head c n rts the in tume t t
a adm tta e m ter making p ble mea ure-
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H ulett Pack d hf br dge In th i strumnt
bown: Figs 11 a d 12 a apaciti e p o b e m a-
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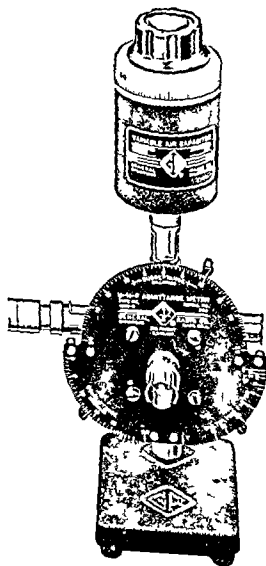


Fig 10 G
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R d Co) IR d d m t t m t w h b l
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and a d a l t t a c h e d t the shaft on which it i
mounted s calibr t e d in deg e e s for a frequency f
100 Mc At f e q u e n c i e s other than 100 Mc the
read ng mu t b multiplied by the f requency in
m g a c y l e s n d d d e d l y 100

Standing wave detector S i a d n g w e d t e c
t o r s a r d e v e c e d t m i r w a e f r e q u e n c y
to mea re imp d n c e s in terms of electromagn ti
field d t r i t i o n i n g u d e d w a v e y e m

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that th r p e r f o m a c e c a n b e r a d i l y a n a l y z e d i n t e r m
f field theo y At the lower microwa f r q u e n c i e s
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n e t f i e l d r a t h e r t h a n w i t h o d t i e c n n e c t n
S e e T A S S I S S I O N L I E S W A V E G U I D E

Impedance n b e m e a s d w i t h t h e t n m s -
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o a l l n e o w a e g u i d e w i t h l o s l e s u i t y
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l o n g a t h o s e c t n l d m e n s n s r m a n u n
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m g t f i e l d s w i l l m a n s t a t a n d b e a e
t h a r e r e s p e c t l y p o p r t n l t v l t a g a n d
c u r r e n t h a t o f t h e e f i l d w i l l d e f i n h a
t t e m p d n f t h e l

W h e t h w r a h t h n d f t h t r m i s
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d s t n u t y t h t p n t s r f t d b a c k w a r d
t w a d t h s e Th n d e n t n d f l e t e d w a e
t h e n a d d t o g e t t f o r m a t t i o n r y n t r f c
p a t t e r t a d g w t h a s m x i a n d
m i n i m a o c u r r i n g a l t e r n t l y a t i t r v a l s f $\frac{1}{4}$
w v l n g t h (s S T A t c W A V E) Th m x m a
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tudes the minima conversely measure their difference. The ratio of maximum to minimum voltage is called the voltage standing wave ratio (VSWR).

The amount of reflection depends upon the relation between the impedance in which the line is terminated and the characteristic impedance of the line. If the impedance is resistive and equal to the characteristic impedance the current will flow into it just as it would into a further extension of the line itself and there is no reflection; if the transmission line is short-circuited the reflected voltage will be equal in magnitude but of reversed polarity to the incident wave because the net voltage must be zero at the termination; if the transmission line is open-circuited the reflected voltage will again be equal in magnitude but of like polarity to the incident wave so that the voltage doubles at the termination. When the terminating impedance equals the characteristic impedance the VSWR is unity and the line is said to be matched. When the line is short-circuited or open-circuited the VSWR would be infinite if the line were lossless. The distance from the termination to the first minimum is respectively zero and $\frac{1}{4}$ wave length for the two terminations.

It can be shown that these two quantities the VSWR and the distance to the first minimum uniquely define the terminating impedance. They are easy to determine experimentally but the mathematical conversion to the conventional impedance components is somewhat involved. Graphical

methods of interpretation have therefore been developed and one known as the Smith chart is widely used both for determining impedance from standing wave measurement and for analyzing the effects of finite lengths of connecting line.

Slotted line. A commercial slotted line for measuring impedance at the lower microwave frequencies is shown in Fig. 13. It comprises a cylindrical coaxial line having a slot in the outer conductor into which a small capacitive probe extends to sample the electric field. As the probe slides along the line its position can be measured to find the distance from the termination to the first voltage minimum and the maximum and minimum voltages determined to find the VSWR. This line is suitable for measurements from about 300 to 5000 Mc.

Slotted section. A commercial slotted section for measuring impedances at the higher microwave frequencies is shown in Fig. 14. Its function is similar to that of the coaxial slotted line but it differs in certain practical respects. Coaxial lines cover the frequency range from dc to the frequencies at which the higher order modes of propagation used in wave guides occur. Wave guides on the other hand are restricted to the relatively narrower frequency ranges over which a single selected dominant mode is useful. Replaceable slotted sections are therefore provided so that a wide frequency range can be covered with a single carriage mechanism. The various sections cover the frequency range from 2600 Mc to 40 000 Mc with two models of carriage.

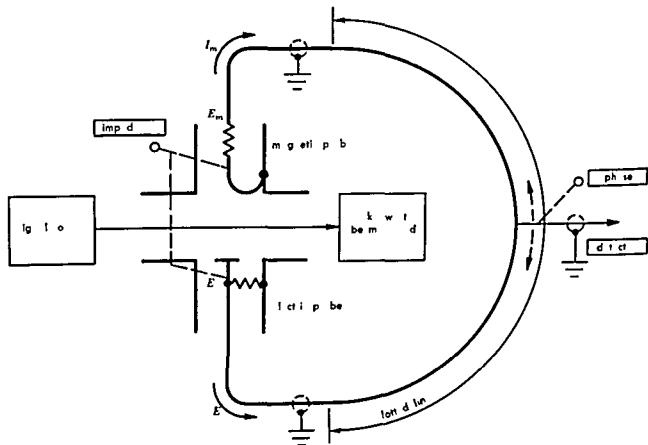


Fig. 14. Schematic diagram of a slotted section for measuring impedance at high frequencies.

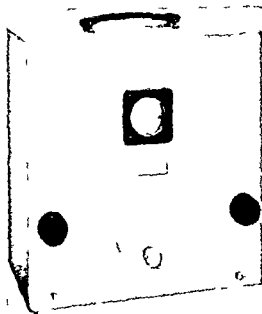


Fig 12 Hewlett-Packard Model 101B (Hewlett-Packard Co.)

Microwave reflectometer A reflect meter separates the incident and reflected waves in a transmission line and measures their individual amplitudes. The ratio of the amplitudes is equal to the magnitude of the reflection coefficient $|\Gamma|$ if the terminating impedance. The VSWR can be determined from

$$VSWR = \frac{1 + |\Gamma|}{1 - |\Gamma|} \quad (29)$$

To measure the terminating impedance itself an additional measurement of phase shift at the point of reflection is necessary. The reflection coefficient can then be represented as a vectorial quantity Γ/θ related to the terminating impedance Z_L and the characteristic impedance Z_0 of the transmission line by

$$\Gamma = \Gamma/\theta = \frac{Z_L - Z_0}{Z_L + Z_0} \quad (30)$$

$$\text{from which} \quad Z_L = \frac{\Gamma + 1}{\Gamma - 1} Z_0 \quad (31)$$

A basic component of the reflect meter is the directional coupler which performs the actual

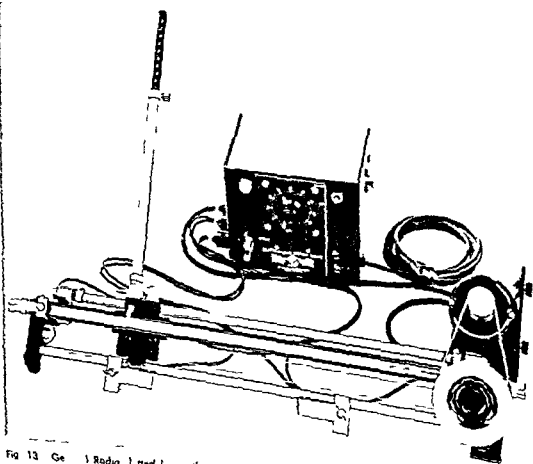


Fig 13 General Radio Model 101B with modified 101P and 101C for VSWR display (General Radio Co.)

r conan e methods, *Pro IRE* 6(12) 1466-1477
1938 P H Smith T an mision li e calculator
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Impetigo

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[E G ST J]

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[I A B]

Impulse (mechanics)

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f F th mp l J r th nterv l f tme t
r b w t

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t r l nd th a ag f a t ng d r ng the i
t al impulse ect q t ty w th th un t of
m m i m

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i t grat n f Newt n s econd law ver the time
interval fr m t o t Let P repres nt the m mentum
at time t with P and P₁ being the alu f P at
t mes t₀ and t respect ily Th en

$$J = \int_{t_0}^{t_1} F dt = \int_{t_0}^{t_1} (dP/dt) dt \\ = \int_{P_0}^{P_1} dP = P_1 - P_0$$

If as s ordinar ly tru the ma m is c n t nt the
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velocitie v₁ a d v₀ at times t₁ and t₀ re pect ily
g i ng

$$J = m(v_1 - v_0)$$

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For es wh h occur dur ng e ll s are f th
t p S e C LUSION

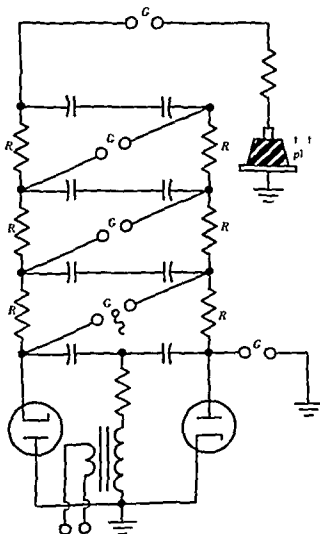
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equent m t i n S e G LVANO METER IMPACT (IM-
PULSIVE FORCE) MO IFNTU t [F W S]
B l o g phy J W Campbell A l t i ductio
t Mecha cs d 194

Impulse generator

An i tr al pp ratus wh ch p d ce ery short
r ges i high l g r figh current pow r
H gh mp l e volt g e d to t i the stre gth
of i lators a d of p w r equ pment ag st
l gh t ng a d w tch ng s rge H gh ur t im-
pul a e prod uc d by th d sch rge of nden rs
c e cted n pa all S h curr nt u g may b
sed to m gn t p rman nt magnets or to p o-
d e the r ng t agnet c f i d i rcula p r t le
c i r t s (se PARTICLE A CELERATO)

High voltage impulse generators commonly employ the principle originally suggested by E. Marx of charging condensers in parallel and discharging them in series. The figure shows a four stage Marx circuit in which the condensers C are first charged in parallel through charging resistors R then connected in series and discharged through the test piece by the simultaneous sparkover of park gaps G . The discharge is precipitated by placing a sufficient voltage on the middle electrode of the three electrode gap between the first and second condenser banks.

Although $1-2 \times 10^6$ volts (peak) is most common over 75×10^6 volts to ground have been obtained. The waveform shows a rapid rise followed by a less rapid decline to zero expressed by $v \propto (e^{-mt} - e^{-nt})$ where v is the instantaneous voltage t seconds after onset of the discharge and m and n are the exponential decay constants of the circuit. Typical industrial laboratory waveforms are the 0.5-5 the 1-10 and the 15-40 in which the first number is the time in microseconds to the peak of the voltage wave and the second is the time to one half voltage on the tail of the wave. These discharges simulate the transient voltages induced in



Typical four-stage Marx impulse generator circuit

electrical conductors by natural lightning [Jett]

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Impulse turbine

A prime mover in which fluid under pressure enters a nozzle where its pressure (potential energy) is converted to velocity (kinetic energy); the fluid then impinges on blades of a rotor imparting its energy to the blades to produce rotation (see TURBINE). The fluid may be water, steam or hot gas (see HYDRAULIC TURBINE, STEAM TURBINE, TURBINE PROPULSION). The action is continuous, thus a designation such as pressure would be more descriptive although impulse is established by long usage. See PELTON WHEEL, also also REACTION TURBINE. [F.H.R.]

IMViC test

A mnemonic for a group of four cultural tests used to differentiate genera of bacteria within the family Enterobacteriaceae. The tests are described in the following paragraphs.

Indole This is a putrefactive compound produced by some bacteria from tryptophan. The bacteria are inoculated into a broth made with an enzymatic digest of casein (see CASIN). After a 2-hour incubation at 37°C, a solution composed of para-dimethylaminobenzaldehyde, amyl alcohol and hydrochloric acid is added. A positive reaction is the appearance of a red color in the alcohol layer indicating the presence of indole.

Methyl red This is a test for the ability of certain bacteria to ferment carbohydrate and form acid. The pH of a culture containing 0.5% glucose is determined after 3 days at 37°C. If the pH is below 4.5 (the pH at which the indicator methyl red turns red) the microorganism is termed methyl red positive.

Voges-Proskauer This is a qualitative test for the formation of acetyl methyl arsin from glucose. A large inoculum of the organism under study is made into a tube of glucose broth incubated for 6 hours at 30°C. Solution of a naphthol potassium hypochloride and creatine are added to the culture. A positive reaction is indicated by a pink to red color.

Citrate This is a test for the ability of an organism to utilize sodium citrate as a sole source of carbon. A medium prepared with glutamic acid, hydrogen phosphate (KH_2PO_4), magnesium sulfate (MgSO_4), sodium ammonium phosphate ($\text{NaNH}_4\text{HPO}_4$) and sodium citrate ($\text{Na}_3\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{O}_7$) in distilled water. A small inoculum of the organism is used in the medium. After incubation growth of the inoculum indicates citrate utilization.

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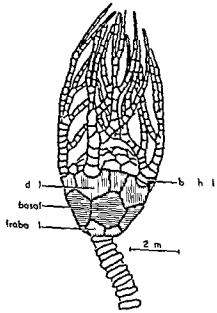
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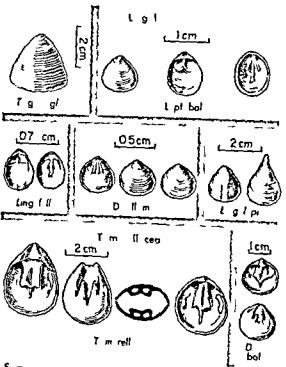
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[H R F]

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l a t a a g f o n t h e C a m b n t o R e c e n t [K H]

Incandescence

T h e m s o n o f i b l e r d t o b y a i t b o d y A
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easy replacement and other environmental and service condition.

The efficient design of an incandescent lamp centers about obtaining a high temperature at the filament without the loss of heat or disintegration of the filament. The early selection of carbon which has the highest melting point of any element (6510 F) was a natural one. Carbon evaporates from its solid phase (sublimate) below this temperature however and it must be operated at relatively low temperatures to obtain reasonable life. Two other elements, osmium (melting point 4890 F) and tantalum (melting point 5250 F) claimed attention because they could be operated at a higher temperature with a longer life and less evaporation. With the advent of ductile tungsten, a nearly perfect filament material was discovered. Ductile tungsten has a tensile strength four times that of steel its melting point is high (6120 F) and it has relatively low evaporation. Hot tungsten is an efficient light radiator; it has a continuous spectrum closely following that of a black body radiator with a relatively high portion of the radiation in the visible spectrum. Because of its strength, ductility and workability it may be formed into coil, the coils again recoiled (for coil-coil filaments) and the coils again recoiled for cathodes in fluorescent lamp. If tungsten could be held at its melting point 52 lumen/watt would be radiated. Because of physical limitations however, 22 lumen/watt is the highest practical radiation for general service lamps. Some special lamps reach 35.8 lumen/watt. The higher the lumen per watt the higher the filament temperature and the color temperature and the whiter the light.

Because the temperature of the filament controls the life of the lamp and its efficiency, it also controls the economic of lighting. For an economical installation, the factors affecting lamp life are weighed against the cost of the lamp and its installation and the cost of operation. This type of economic study however is rarely made of a lighting installation. The usual practice is to select a desired lamp size from the stock of the supplier for the accepted regional voltage.

Vaporization of the filament is reduced as much as possible. A small amount remains however and causes blackening of the bulb. The evaporated tungsten particles are carried to the upper part of the bulb by convection current. With the lamp in a base-up position the blackening is confined to the socket area and the light output is only slightly affected. In a base-down position the blackening reduces the output a few per cent. To reduce blackening the inner atmosphere of the lamp is kept as clean as possible by use of a getter which combines chemically with the tungsten particles. In lamps in which a getter is not adequate, tungsten powder is enclosed in the bulb and used to scour the surface by shaking. In metal lamps a grid is placed to attract and hold the evaporated tungsten particles.

When cement failures are likely because of the heat, mechanical fastening is used to hold the lamp

to the glass. When large electric currents are present, either mechanical fastening or bipolar construction is used. Bipolar and prefocus bases allow accurate placement of the filament with respect to the equipment for which it is designed. There are two common failures of the lamp bulb: (1) in projectors when the filament image is focused upon the glass and the bulb blisters and (2) when the hot bulb comes in contact with some low temperature medium and thermal cracks develop. To protect the electric circuit from some lamp failure, a fuse may be placed in the lead-in wire.

Lamp ratings. Lamps are built for various voltage conditions, the most common being 115, 120 and 125 volts. High voltage lamps are designed for ratings from 220 to 260 volts and low voltage lamps from 6 to 64 volts. Lamps are used in 525 to 625

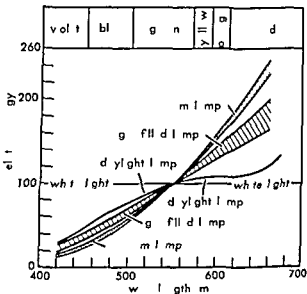


Fig 3 Spectral energy distribution for important types of incandescent lamp

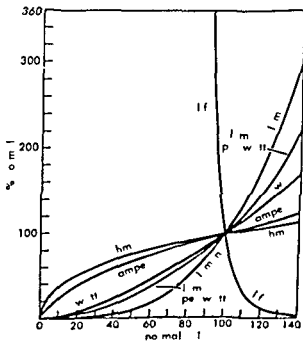


Fig 4 Characteristic curves for incandescent lamp

ea y replacement and other environmental and service conditions

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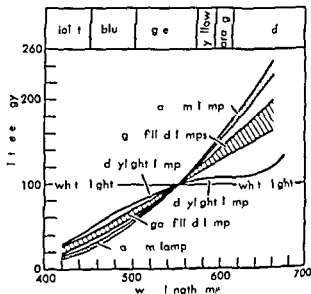


Fig 3 Spectral energy distribution for important types of incandescent lamp

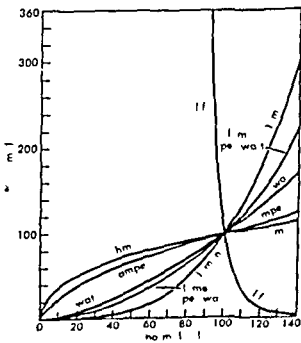


Fig 4 Characteristic curves for incandescent lamp

It is designed to operate in a group of five or more cross the line. Chromatic lights are designed to operate in parallel in series with high impedance across the line. Street lamp are of the electrolytic operating in 66 amp except in the system where the dual lamp is a form is used with lamp current of 15-20 amp. In a street lighting system the intensity of the electrical system is maintained by a device that is cut out the lamp when the filament burns out.

Lamp characteristics Two characteristics of the lamp and the lamp of particles are the type and color. Figure 3 shows the effect of the ratio of the lamp for the major type of lamp and the lamp Figure 4 shows the effect of the variable of the lamp characteristic.

At the time of the first trial, the male and female subjects were given a list of 10 words to memorize. The words were: "apple, banana, cherry, date, elderberry, fig, grape, honeydew, kiwi, and lemon." The subjects were then asked to write down the words in the order they remembered them. The results of the trial are shown in Table 1. The subjects were then given a second trial, and the results are shown in Table 2. The subjects were then given a third trial, and the results are shown in Table 3. The subjects were then given a fourth trial, and the results are shown in Table 4. The subjects were then given a fifth trial, and the results are shown in Table 5. The subjects were then given a sixth trial, and the results are shown in Table 6. The subjects were then given a seventh trial, and the results are shown in Table 7. The subjects were then given an eighth trial, and the results are shown in Table 8. The subjects were then given a ninth trial, and the results are shown in Table 9. The subjects were then given a tenth trial, and the results are shown in Table 10.

$$\frac{\text{Life}}{\text{LIFE}} = \left(\frac{\text{LUMENS}}{\text{l m s}} \right) = \left(\frac{\text{LUMENS/WATT}}{\text{lum ns/w tt}} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

$$= \left(\frac{\text{VOLTS}}{\text{olts}} \right) = \left(\frac{\text{AMPERES}}{\text{mpe es}} \right)$$

tives and airplanes. A high degree of accuracy—just short of optical accuracy—is achieved by molding the contours of the reflector thereby obtaining accurate beam control. With this sturdy structure the filament can be positioned for the best use of the lens and the lamp has little depreciation during its life. Being constructed of hard glass it lends itself to high wattage use.

Miniature incandescent lamps are used in many fields and in many pieces of equipment from the ordinary flashlight to the grain of wheat lamps used in surgical and dental instruments. The lamps are designed to give the highest efficiency consistent with the nature of the power source employed.

Special picture projection lamps are designed for accurate filament location in the focal plane of the optical system with the filament concentrated as much as possible in a single plane and in a small area. The precision lamps use a prefocus base for accurate positioning of the filament with respect to the base. Projector lamps run at high temperatures and forced ventilation is frequently required.

A special class of lamp is designed for the photographic field where the chief requirement is actinic quality. Frequently the most important rating is the color temperature with little regard for economic efficiency or life. Flood lamps give high illumination for a short life obtaining twice the lumens from high filament temperature and high color temperature with three times the photographic effectiveness. The daylight blue flood lamp gives a very white light at 4800 K color temperature at 35.8 lumen/watt.

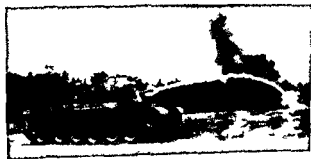
For other types of incandescent lamps see *ARC LAMP*, *INFRARED LAMP*. [JOK.]

Bibliography Illuminating Engineering Society *IES Lighting Handbook* 3d ed. 1959.

Incendiary

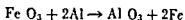
One of a number of flammable materials and device that are used to set fire to tactical and strategic target such as buildings, industrial installation, and fuel and ammunition dumps. Flame warfare extends also to antipersonnel use in the case of flame thrower and fire bombs.

Modern incendiaries can be classified as either those which owe their effect to a self-supporting chemical reaction or those which depend on atmospheric oxygen to support combustion.



Modified flame thrower

Metallic incendiaries Thermite is a mixture of powdered iron oxide Fe_2O_3 and powdered or granular aluminum. When heated the following reaction occurs:



This produces a temperature of about 2900°C and melts the iron formed, which in turn easily ignites any combustible material with which it is in contact. The reaction is self-sustaining.

Metallic magnesium igniting at about 600°C, requires oxygen to support combustion. Once started the fire is extremely difficult to put out. Water is decomposed by burning magnesium and adds hydrogen to the combustion. Burning is stopped only by excluding oxygen or by cooling the metal below its ignition temperature. Incendiary bomb casing of magnesium are usually ignited by a thermite core.

Petroleum incendiaries These are based on gasoline as a fuel. The gasoline may be either straight or mixed with other petroleum fuels. It must however be thickened to be an effective incendiary. This thickening is necessary to confine the burning material to the target and when used in flame throwers to increase the range of the ejected rod of fuel and to prevent its being consumed before reaching the target. Thickened fuel is sometimes called jellied gasoline.

One of the first practical fuel thickeners was Napalm, a mixed aluminum soap in which the organic acids are derived from coconut oil (50%), naphthenic acid (25%), and oleic acid (25%). It may be used in quantities ranging from 4 to 12% depending on the thickness desired. Calcium thickened with Napalm becomes a firm jelly when undisturbed but in motion such as when forced through a flame thrower nozzle, it acts as a viscous liquid. This thixotropy is characteristic of all thickened fuels.

Flame throwers are devices which force petroleum fuels through nozzles igniting them as they emerge. The driving force is usually compressed air carried in a small tank which is an integral part of the device. Portable flame throwers carried by soldiers have a range of over 50 yards under ideal conditions. Mounted flame throwers mounted on military vehicles can throw fuel over 150 yards. Flame throwers are primarily antipersonnel weapons.

Other incendiaries White phosphorus, which ignites spontaneously in the presence of atmospheric oxygen to produce a dense, foul, phosphorus pentoxide halogenated, self-sustaining incendiary although its principal use is as a smoke producer. Burning liquid, regenerative, white, small drops of burning white phosphorus, is an effective antipersonnel incendiary.

CHEMICAL WARFARE FIRE EXTINGUISHING SCREENING MOKE [Sb.]

Bibliography *Chemical Warfare* Inc. 1947
Warfare 1914-1918 US Department of the Army Military Chemistry and Chemical Agents Technical Manual TM 3-15 Aug 1936

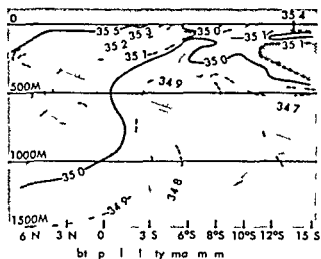


Fig 4 Relations of water masses in the upper 1500 m of the Indian Ocean from 6°N to 15°S along 50°E based on records of salinity obtained in 1935 by the French vessel *Naosel* (After Tchernia, Lacombe and Gubot 1958)

Madagascar and Africa. In the southern winter the South Equatorial Current also contains water entering north of Australia from the Pacific Ocean. In the southern summer this contribution ceases. See SOUTH-EAST ASIAN WATERS.

North of latitude 10°S the circulation is determined seasonally by the prevailing winds. In February and March when the northwest monsoon prevails the North Equatorial Current (east to west) is well developed and an Equatorial Counter Current (west to east) is present between 5°S and 10°S between the Gulf of Aden and 5°S a current flows to the south. In August and September under the influence of the southeast monsoon the North Equatorial Current disappears and is replaced by the Monsoon Current (west to east). The Equatorial Counter Current forms part of the general eastward surface flow in the northern Indian Ocean during this season and a stream (the Somali Current) runs northward along the African Coast from 10°S to 10°N.

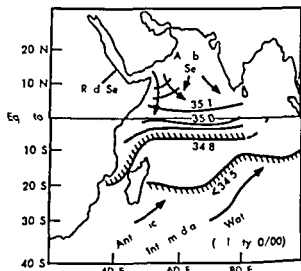


Fig 6 Southern limit of Red Sea and Arabian Sea water and northern limit of Antarctic Intermediate Water at 1000 m (Adapted from J. Lefloch 1951)

Subsurface circulation. Little is known about the subsurface circulation north of 50°S. Ocean station data for depths greater than 1000 m are sparse. From the available data, however, and from data obtained in the upper layer, it is possible to show the interactions of the more important water masses, namely that originating in the Red Sea, Arabian Sea area, and that originating in the Antarctic Intermediate Water (Fig 1).

A high rate of evaporation in the Red Sea (length 1000 mi, width 150 mi, maximum depth 2800 m) leads to the formation of relatively dense salt water and intermediate water (temp < 20°C, salinity > 37‰, density > 70). This water flows into the Indian Ocean, over the sill, and enters the entrance of the Red Sea (Fig 5). The flow is regular and greater in the northern winter than in the summer. This water, along with that formed in the Arabian Sea, spreads easterly toward latitude 80°E and southerly toward latitude 10°S at intermediate depths (1000-3000 m) mixing with the surrounding water in the Indian Ocean (Fig 1).

Antarctic Intermediate Water (density 33.8‰, temp < 2°C) forms at the Antarctic Peninsula and flows northward in the Indian Ocean. In the winter area it meets the Red Sea water at 1000 m, 10°S to 300 m at 8°S, and it is then mixed with the

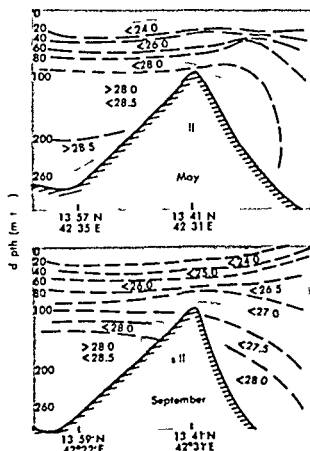
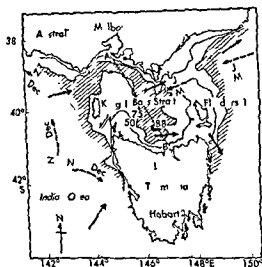


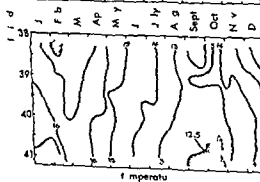
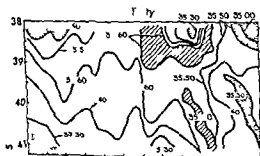
Fig 5 Distribution of density (σ_t) and depth of c.p. at sill of Red Sea in May and September (After F. F. Thompson 1939)

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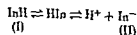
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m a i n l a n d a l l w t h e i n g r e s s f o m t h e e a t o f s u b t
p a l w a t e s f r m s o u t h e r n N e w S o u t h W a l e
a n d e t e n T m n a T o m e x t n t t h e c
h a g e i s c u l t o n d t e r m i n e t h e e a o n a l
l y t e m p e r a t u r e c h a n g e s (Fg 8) D u r i n g A p r i l
t o J u n e B a S t r a i t w a t e r h a s e l l a i n t y (35.40-
35.50) a n d t e m p e r a t u r e (14-16 C) t y p i c a l o f
S o u t h e r n O c e a n w a t e r w e t o f T a m a n a a t t h t
t i m e F r m J u l y t o O c t o b e r t h e h e t a l i t y
w a t e r s (= 35.60) f l o w i t o B a s S t r a i t f r o m
S o u t h A u t r a l i a L o w s a l i n t y w a t e r (3.00-
3.30) o c c u r d u r i n g t h e s p r i n g a n d s u m m e r
a l o n g t h e V e t e r a n c o a t b t i n g e n e r a l t h e i r e f f e c t
o B a s S t a i t l i g h t T h e d e c h a r g e o f l a r g e
q u a n t i t i e s o f w a t e r r e t a n e d u t i l e a r l y s u m m e r a s
o w d i c i t h e m a i n t a i n r e g n s f t h e m a j o r
T s m n a n r i e s f r m s a l a g e b d y o f T a m a n a n
c o a l w a t e r w h c h h a s m a d e e f f e c t o r l i n t y
v l e s i n t h e B a s S t r a i t d r i n g D e c e m b e r a n d
J a n u a r y S e P A C I F I C O C E A N [D J R]

B i b l i o g r a p h y J N J e n n i n g T h s u b m a r i n e
t o p o g r a p h y f B a s S t r a i t P e R y S o c (I c
t o r a) n l 73 p t l 1959 M J P l a k
F r e q u e n c y d i s t r i b u t i o n o f p t e n t a l t e m p e r a t u r e
a n d l t s i n t h e I n d i a n O c e a n D p S a R
e a c h 5 128-133 1958 G S c h o t t G g p h
d s l d i s h u d S t i l l O s 193

Indicator acid base

A s u b s t a n c e t h a t r e v i s t h o u g h c h a r a c t e r i s t i c
c l a s s i f i c a t i o n d e g r e e o f i d e n t i f i c a t i o n f
I t o s I n d i c a t o r a r e w e l k o r g a n i c a c i d s o r
b a s e s w h c h v a r i e i n m o r e t h a n o n e s t r u c t u r a l f o r m
(t a u t o m e r i s m) f w h h a t l e a s t o n e f o r m c o l o r e d
I n t e n s i t y o f c o l o r d e p e n d s o n t h e c o n c e n t r a t i o n o f t h e
a t s n e e d d t h i d e t e r m i n e t h e f o l l o w i n g t h u s n o t
f i t t h a c t i v i t y o f t h e s u b s t a n c e

T h e e q u i l i b r i u m r a t i o n o f i n d i c a t o r m a y b e
r e g a r d e d t y p i c a l l y b y g i v i n g t h e f o r m u l a H i n I t
d i s s o c i a t e s i n t o H a n d I n i o n s a n d i n e q u i l i b r i u m
w i t h t a u t o m e r i s m I H w h c h i s t h e a n n o n e
e l e c t r o l y t e o r a t m o t i n z e s e r y l i g h t l y I n t h
o f f e q u i l i b r i u m



t h e m p l y g a s u m p t o n t h t t h e i d e t r e
t i o n l y i n f o r m (I) a n d (II) l e a d s t o n o d i f f e
r e n c e i n t h e a d d i t i o n o f c o l o r c o m p l e t e l y c o n c e r t
t h i n d i c a t o r f o r m (I) w h c h t h e e f r a l l e d
t h e d f m o f t h e i d a t l i t h u g h t s f u n
i n g a b a A h y d o d b e c o v e r t s t h e
d t o f o r m (II) w h c h t h e f r m a t i o n o f w a t e r
t h i s a l l e d t h e a l k l f r m F o r t h e e q u i l i b r i u m
b e t w e e n (I) a n d (II) t h e q l b m n
t a t s

$$A_1 = \frac{[H^+][In^-]}{[InH]}$$

In a manner similar to the pH designation of acidity that is $pH = -\log [H^+]$ the A_1 is converted to pK_1 with the following result

$$pK_1 = pH - \log \frac{[In^-]}{[InH]}$$

It is seen that the pK_1 of an indicator has a numerical value approximately equal to that of a specific pH level

Use of indicators Acid base indicators are commonly employed to mark the end point of an acid base titration or to measure the existing pH of a solution. For titration the indicator must be chosen that its pK_1 is approximately equal to the pH of the system at its equivalence point. For pH measurement the indicator is added to the so-

lution and allowed to equilibrate. The pH of the solution is equal to the pH of that buffer which gives a color match. Care must be used to compare colors only within the indicator range. A color comparator may also be used employing standard color filters instead of buffer solution.

Indicator range This is the pH interval of color change of the indicator. In this range there is competition between indicator and added base for the available protons, and the color change, for example, yellow to red is gradual rather than instantaneous. Observers may therefore differ in selecting the precise point of change. If one assumes arbitrarily that the indicator is in one color form when at least 90% of it is in that form, there will be a certain color in the range of 90% to 10% InH (that is 10% to 90% In⁻). Upon substituting these arbitrary limits into the pK_1 equation it is seen that the interval between definite color is from

Common indicators

| Common name | pH range | Color change (acid to base) | pK ₁ | Chemical name | Structure (acid or base) | Solubility |
|----------------------------|------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------|---|--------------------------|------------------------------------|
| Methyl violet | 0 - 5.6 | Yellow to blue violet | | Pentamethylbenzylpararosaniline hydrochloride | B ₁ | 0.1% in water |
| Metacresol purple | 1 - 8 7.3 - 9.0 | Red to yellow to purple | 1.5 | m-Cresolsulfonphthalein | Acid | 0.3% in 0.1N NaOH dilute to 0.01% |
| Thymol blue | 1 - 9.8 8.0 - 9.6 | Red to yellow to blue | 1 | Thymolsulfonphthalein | Acid | 0.93% in 0.1N NaOH dilute to 0.01% |
| Tropeoline OO (Orange IV) | 1.4 - 3.0 | Red to yellow | | Sodium p-diphenylaminoazobenzene-sulfonate | B ₁ | 0.1% in water |
| Bromphenol blue | 3.0 - 4.6 | Yellow to blue | 4.1 | Tetrasodium m-cresolsulfonphthalein | Acid | 1.39% in 0.1N NaOH dilute to 0.01% |
| Methyl orange | 2.8 - 4.0 | Orange to yellow | 3.4 | Sodium p-dimethylanilinoazobenzene-sulfonate | Base | 0.1% in water |
| Bromocresol green | 3.8 - 5.4 | Yellow to blue | 4.9 | Tetrasodium o-m-cresolsulfonphthalein | Acid | 0.1% in 0.05% NaOH dilute to 0.01% |
| Methyl red | 4 - 6.3 | Red to yellow | 5.0 | Dimethylanilinoazobenzene-carboxylic acid | Base | 0.5% in 0.1N NaOH dilute to 0.01% |
| Chlorophenol red | 5.0 - 6.8 | Yellow to red | 6.2 | Dichlorophenylsulfonphthalein | Acid | 0.8% in 0.1N NaOH dilute to 0.01% |
| Bromocresol purple | 5.2 - 6.8 | Yellow to purple | 6.4 | Dibromocresolsulfonphthalein | Acid | 1.08% in 0.1N NaOH dilute to 0.01% |
| Bromthymol blue | 6.0 - 6.6 | Yellow to blue | 7.3 | Dibromothymolsulfonphthalein | Acid | 1.0% in 0.1N NaOH dilute to 0.01% |
| Eriochrome red | 6.8 - 8.4 | Yellow to red | 8.0 | Eriochrome blue black | Acid | 0.71% in 0.1N NaOH dilute to 0.01% |
| Cresol red | 7.0 - 8.0 7.0 - 8.8 | Orange to amber to red | 8.3 | o-Cresolsulfonphthalein | Acid | 0.1% in 0.1N NaOH dilute to 0.01% |
| Orthocresolsulfonphthalein | 8.2 - 9.8 | Colorless to red | | | Acid | 0.01% in 0.1N NaOH dilute to 0.01% |
| Eriochrome black | 8.2 - 10.0 | Colorless to pink | 9 | | Acid | 0.1% in 0.1N NaOH dilute to 0.01% |
| Thymolphthalein | 10.0 - 11.0 | Colorless to red | 9.9 | | Acid | 0.1% in 0.1N NaOH dilute to 0.01% |
| Alizarin yellow | 10.0 - 11.0 | Yellow to blue | | 4-Allyl-2-naphthyl sulfonate | Acid | 0.1% in water |
| Methyl green | 11.4 - 13.0 | Green to colorless | | p-Propylbenzenesulfonate | Base | 0.1% in water |

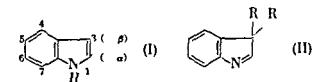
both melt at 235°C. The e compound are diamagnetic and thus may be In^I (In^{III}) compounds. Reduction of the trichloride and bromide with indium metal results in products of composition InX . When added to water the reduced state compounds disproportionate to the metal and the oxidation state III.

Indium forms organometallic compounds mainly of the R_3In class where R is either alkyl or aryl. The reaction of indium metal with mercury alkyls (aryls) give the desired products. Indium organometallic compounds tend to be associated in solution and are easily oxidized in the air.

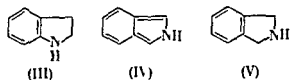
Indium may be determined quantitatively with 8-hydroxyquinoline by precipitation of the compound $In(C_8H_6ON)_3$ at 70–80°C from a sodium acetate-acetic acid buffer followed by drying at 120°C and direct weighing of the precipitate. An alternate to the direct weighing is the bromometric titration procedure after solution of the compound in warm 10–15% hydrochloric acid or the colorimetric determination at 400 m μ of a chloroform solution of the 8-hydroxyquinolate. See GALLIUM, THALLIUM [F.M.L.]

Indole

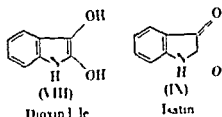
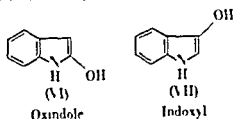
One of a group of organic heterocyclic compounds in which a benzene ring is fused to a pyrrole ring. Indole (I) is a typical member of the group (see



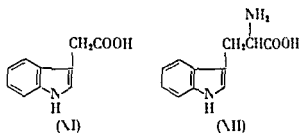
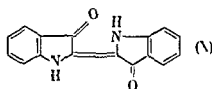
HETEROCYCLIC COMPOUNDS. PYRROLE. Indolenines refer to isomeric systems which are of interest generally only when two groups are present at the 3 position as in (II). 2,3-Dihydroindole is called indoline (III). The dihydroindole system (V)



has received much study. The indole system (IV) much less. Indole substituted with oxygen at position 2 or 3 have special names (VI–IX).



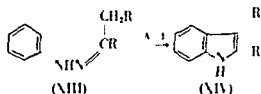
The indole skeleton occurs in many natural products. Examples might include the blue dye indigo (X), the plant growth hormone heteroauxin (XI), the amino acid tryptophan (XII) and the indole alkaloid for example tryptamine (XIII).



Indole is not only one of the essential amino acids for man but also the biochemical precursor of the indole plant alkaloid. It is also very likely the progenitor of indole and 3-methylindole (skatole) which are produced by pyrolysis or putrefaction of protein material.

Properties and preparation. Indole (I) is a team volatile colorless solid, mp 52.5–53°C. It is found in small amount in coal tar in feces and in flower oil. Indole is not ordinarily classed as acidic or basic although it is an active hydrogen compound in which hydrogen at the 1 position is replaceable by metal. In the absence of oxygen indole is stable to heat and to alkali. Indole is an enactive acid and to oxidize in presence of water or the more highly substituted indoles are in general more stable. Indole can be regarded as a relatively reactive aromatic compound. Electrophilic substitution favors the 3 position and to a lesser extent the 2 position. The experimental resonance energy for indole is 54 kcal/mole.

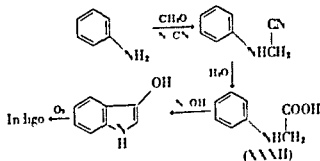
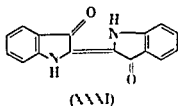
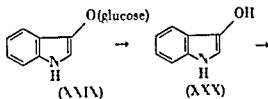
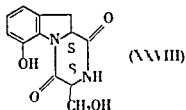
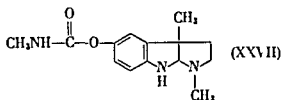
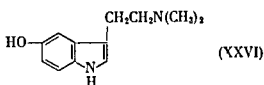
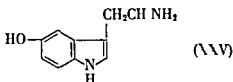
Indole synthesis proceeds by using a five-membered heterocycle on a nitrogenous compound. Of the many known synthetic methods the Fischer indole synthesis is the most versatile. By this method a phenylhydrazine (XIII) of an aldehyde or ketone on treatment with acid yields an indole.



(XIV) For example with the starting material is the phenylhydrazine of acetaldehyde (R = CH3). 2-methylindole. The R group at indole position 2 and 3 may be varied widely. Substituted indoles are formed when the phenylhydrazine (XIII) is substituted on the benzene ring. Another synthetic route for indole is the cyclization of a substituted indole (XV) to indole (XVI) by treatment with acid. (XV) is a substituted indole.

which phenylglycine (XXXII) is an intermediate. Substituted indigos are prepared from indigo or by total synthesis. The bromo and chloro derivatives are valuable dyes. Tyrian purple or 6,6-dibromoindigo, a dye of antiquity obtained from a Mediterranean snail.

3-Hydroxyindole or indoxyl is a yellow compound with an unpleasant odor. It is easily oxidized with air or with ferric chloride to indigo. Reduction with sodium amalgam or with hot zinc dust affords indole. The reactive 2-position of indoxyl combines readily with aldehydes to give col-

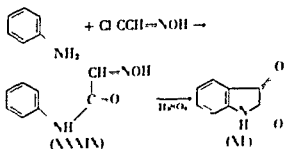
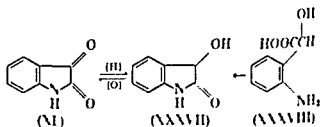
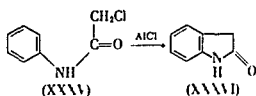
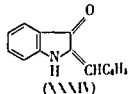
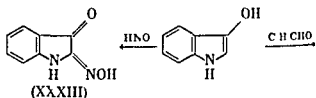


ored indogenide such as (XXXIV) and with nitrous acid to give isatin α -monooxime (XXXIII).

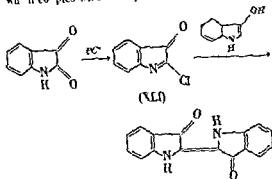
Oxindole is 2-hydroxyindole; however the tautomeric amide structure (XXXVI) is probably the more appropriate formulation. Oxindole can be prepared by Friedel-Crafts cyclization of γ -(chloroacetyl)aniline (XXXV) or by a two-stage reduction of isatin. The oxindole 3-position may be alkylated, nitrosated, acylated or condensed with aldehydes.

Dioxindole (XXXVII) is produced by hydrolytic reduction of isatin (XL) or by cyclization of α -aminomandelic acid (XXXVIII). Oxidation of dioxindole regenerates isatin; reduction gives oxindole (XXXVI).

Isatin or 2,3-dioxindoline (XL) is prepared by oxidation of oxindole by oxidative cleavage of indigo or by ring synthesis. One standard isatin synthesis (Sandmeyer) proceeds by cyclization of isonitrosoacetanilide (XXXIX) which is obtained from aniline and chloral oxime. Isatin is a red, weakly acidic material. The reactive carbonyl group at the 3-position takes part in familiar car-



boyl add n react s Ph ph u p atachlo-
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wh h co ples with ndoxyl in a standard and u



(11 d g ynthes I atin an be c n er d the
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Inductance

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or

$$L = - \frac{d\Phi}{dI/dt}$$

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first

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$$p = i^2 = i^2 R + L di/dt$$

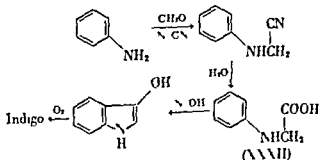
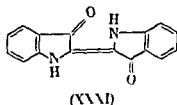
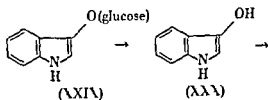
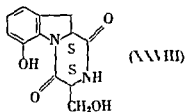
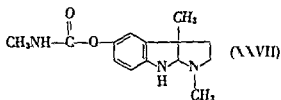
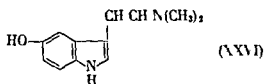
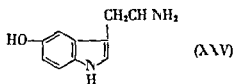
Th f i st term $i^2 R$ is th p e r th t goes into he t
ing the c t The e nd term $L di/dt$ s the
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$$W = \int_0^t p dt = \int_0^t L i \frac{di}{dt} dt = \int_0^I L i di = \frac{1}{2} L I^2$$

Th ene gy th t h bee d m b u l d n g up the
magn t f i l d rema s e e gy f the m g e t i c
field W h n i t e t e h s op n d th mag e t f i l d
l l p e s a d th n e r g y of th field s returned t
th c i curr re l i n g n a n d c d emf The arc

which phenylglycine (XXXII) is an intermediate. Substituted indigos are prepared from indigo or by total synthesis. The bromo and chloro derivatives are valuable dyes. Tyrian purple or 6,6-dibromoindigo is a dye of antiquity obtained from a Mediterranean snail.

3-Hydroxyindole or indoxyl is a yellow compound with an unpleasant odor. It is easily oxidized with air or with ferric chloride to indigo. Reduction with sodium amalgam or with hot zinc dust affords indole. The reactive 2 position of indoxyl combines readily with aldehydes to give col-

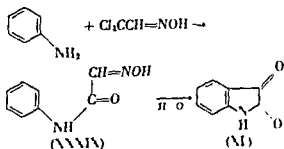
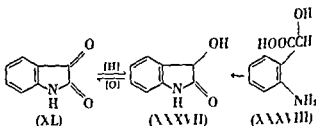
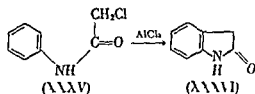
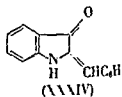
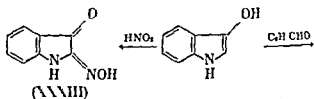


ored indogenides such as (XXXIV) and with nitrous acid to give isatin α -monooxime (XXXIII).

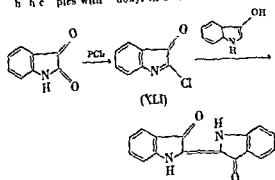
Oxindole is 2-hydroxyindole, however the tautomeric amide structure (XXXVI) is probably the more appropriate formulation. Oxindole can be prepared by Friedel-Crafts cyclization of *N*-(chloroacetyl)aniline (XXXV) or by a two-stage reduction of isatin. The oxindole 3 position may be alkylated, nitrated, acylated, or condensed with aldehydes.

Dioxindole (XXXVII) is produced by hydrolytic reduction of isatin (XL) or by cyclization of *o*-aminomandelic acid (XXXVIII). Oxidation of dioxindole regenerates isatin. Reduction gives oxindole (XXXVI).

Isatin or 2,3-dioxindoline (XL) is prepared by oxidation of oxindole by oxidative cleavage of indigo or by ring synthesis. One standard synthesis (Sandmeyer) proceeds by cyclization of isonitrosoacetanilide (XXXIX) which is obtained from aniline and chloral oxime. Isatin is a red, weakly acidic material. The reactive carbonyl group at the 3 position takes part in familiar car-



bonyl addn react n Phosphor pentachloride conerts at n to sat -α-chloride (XLI) b h c ples with doxyl in a st nda d and e



ful ind g ynth i l atun be con rted n the Pfiz ger process t qu n l n de v t e Se Quinolone [W J CL.]

Bbl g apy R C. Elderfild (ed) *Heterocyclic Compounds* 13 1952 W C Sumf r and F M Mlle *Heterocyclic Comp d with I dole* nd C b l Syst ms 1954

Inductance

That p ope ty of an el ct cr ut frw neigh bo ger t wh re by a el t o moti fo e i s d ed (by th p es of electromagn ti duc t n) n of the ci ut by a hnge f current i th of th m S ELECTROMOTIVE FORCE (EMF) I DUC TION L C S O T A E T I The term ind ct a c e i l s m t m u s d a y n o n y m f d t a d e r c p o i g th p r p r t y f d u t (I N D U C T O R)

Self inductance Fo a g en co l th r t i th l t r m t e f e f i d u c t o n t th a t e f h a g o f r r t i l t l a l l d th s i f d t n L o f t h c L

$$L = - \frac{e}{di/dt}$$

h th lect mot e l e t any in t nt nd d l d th rat of cha g f the rrent at th t t t Th n g t i g n d cates th t th ndu ed lect r m t l o r e o p p t e n d i e c t n t th n t when the e r r e n t e a n g (d i / d t p o i r e) and n t h s m d e c t n the n t h n t h u t s d r e n g (d i / d t g t i) Th l l n d u t i h e n r y w h n th lect m t f e l t d t h e a t f h g f u r r t a m p e r e s p e r s e d S l l e r

A l t t d f i t o f l l d c t a c i th m b e f g x l k g e s p e r u t r e t H x l k g th p o d t o f the f i and th n m b e r f i n t h l Th n

$$L = \frac{\lambda \Phi}{I}$$

Mult pl b e t h d (th q i n b y l t o b t a i

$$LI = \lambda \Phi$$

and d i f f e r e n t a t w i t h r p e i t o t

$$L \frac{di}{dt} = \lambda \frac{d\Phi}{dt} = -e$$

r

$$I = - \frac{d\lambda}{di/dt}$$

H e n e t h e c d d f i n t n i e q u a l e n t t t h e f i t

S e l f i n d u c t a n c e d o e n o t a f f e t a c r i t i n w h c h t h e u r r e t i n h n g b u t i t i o f g r e a t i m p o r t n e w h e n t h e e i a c h a n g i n g c u r r e n t s n e t h e r e i s a n n d e d e m f d r n g t h t i m e t h a t t h e c h a n g e t k e s p l c e F r e x a m p l e i n a n a l t e r n a t i g c i r c u i t c r c i t t h e u r r e n t i c n s t a t i l y h a n g n g a n d t h e i d u c t n i a n i m p o r t n t f c t o A l n t r a n s e t p h e n m n a t t h e b e g i n n i n g r e n d f a i a d y u d e u o n a l c u r r e n t t h e l f n d u t a n e p l y a p a r t S e T R A N S I E R T E L E C T R I C

C o s i d e r a c c i o f e t a c e R a n d i n d u c t a n c e L o n n c i e l i n s e r i e s t o a c o n s t a t o u c e o f p o t e n t i a l d i f f e r e f T h e c r e n t i n t h e c r c u i t d e n t e c h a f i n a l t e a d y a l u e i t a n t l y b u t r i e s t o w a r d t h e f i l a u e $I = E/R$ i a m a n n e t h a t d e p e d s u p o n R a d L A t r y i n t a t a f t e t h e s w i t c h i s c l e d t h a p p l e d p o t t i a l d i f f e r e n c e i s t h u m f t h e i R d r o p i n p o t e t l a n d t h e b a c k e m f $L di/dt$ o r

$$I = R + L \frac{d}{dt}$$

w h r e i s t h e s t a n t a e c u a l u e o f t h e c u r r e n t S e p a r t i g t h e v a r i a b l e i a n d t o n e o b t a i n s

$$\frac{d}{dt} = \frac{R}{L} \frac{d}{dt}$$

T h o l t i n o f t h i s q a t i o n

$$i = \frac{I}{R} (1 - e^{-(R/L)t})$$

T h c r e n t r e s e x p e n t i a l l y t a f i n l t e a d y a l u e I/R T h r a t e f g w i t h a p i d a t f i r t t h e n l e a n d l s p d t h e r r e n t a p p r o h e t h e f i n l l e

T h e p o w e r u p p l d t o t h e c i c t a t e v y n t n d u i g t h r e f e r e t g i e n b y

$$p = i^2 R = R + I d/dt$$

T h e f i r s t t e r m "R" i s t h e p w e t h a t g t f e a t g t h e c i c t T h e c n d t e r m $L d/dt$ i s t h p o w e t h t g s t o b l d g u p t h e m g n e t c f i l d i t h e i n d u c t o T h t o t a l n e r g y t h a t i u e d i b l d i g p t h m a g n e t i c f i e l d i

$$W = \int_0^t p dt = \int_0^t L i \frac{d}{dt} dt = \int_0^t L i d = \frac{1}{2} L I^2$$

T i s n e g y t h h a b e e n u e d i b l d n g p t h e m g n t c f i l d r m a s a e n e g y o f t h m g n e t c f i l d W h n t h e s w t c h o p d t h e m g e t c f i e l d o l l a p e s d t h n e r g y o f t h f i l d i r e t n e d t o t h e c u t r e h n g n a n i n d u e d e m f T h e s

that is often seen when a switch is opened is a result of this emf and the energy to maintain the arc is supplied by the decreasing magnetic field

Mutual inductance The mutual inductance M of two neighboring circuits A and B is defined as the ratio of the emf induced in one circuit to the rate of change of current in the other circuit

$$M = -\frac{\mathcal{E}_B}{(dI/dt)_A}$$

The mks unit of mutual inductance is the henry the same as the unit of self inductance. The same value is obtained for a pair of coils regardless of which coil is taken as the starting point

The mutual inductance of two circuits may also be expressed as the ratio of the flux linkages produced in circuit B by the current in circuit A to the current in circuit A . If Φ_B is the flux thread in B as a result of the current in circuit A

$$\mathcal{E}_B = -N_B \frac{d\Phi_{BA}}{dt} = -M \frac{dI_A}{dt}$$

or $N_B d\Phi_{BA} = M dI_A$

Integration leads to the result

$$M = \frac{N_B \Phi_{BA}}{I_A}$$

See **INDUCTANCE MEASUREMENT** [K & M]

Bibliography See **INDUCTION ELECTROMAGNETIC**

Inductance bridge

A device that compares inductances. The inductance bridge is a special case of an impedance bridge. Just as the Wheatstone bridge is used to compare resistance, the impedance bridge is used

to compare impedances which may contain inductive capacitance and resistance

General impedance bridge A general impedance bridge is shown in Fig 1. Four impedances Z , Z_b , Z , and Z_1 are connected into a square array. A source of voltage v is applied across one diagonal of the square and a detector or galvanometer G is connected across the other diagonal. The bridge is balanced when the current through the galvanometer and hence the voltage across it are equal to zero.

If the voltage across G is equal to zero, the instantaneous voltage drop across Z_b must equal that across Z_1 . If the instantaneous in-phase voltages are equal, they are equal in magnitude and are in phase with one another. Equating the magnitudes $Z_1 I = Z_b I$ and following the same reasoning $Z_b I = Z_d I$. The current in Z_b is equal to the current in Z because the current in G is equal to zero. Similarly, the current in Z_d is equal to the current in Z . Eliminating I and I from the equations, an equation of balance is obtained

$$Z Z_d = Z_b Z$$

The voltage across Z leads I by the power factor angle ϕ , and the voltage across Z leads I by the power factor angle ϕ . If I leads I by the angle ϕ , then $\phi + \phi$ must equal ϕ if the two voltage drops are to be in phase. Similarly, $\phi + \phi_b = \phi_d$. Eliminating ϕ from these two equations, the second equation of balance for the impedance bridge is obtained

$$\phi + \phi_d = \phi_b + \phi$$

Several important properties can be recognized by considering the second equation of balance. If Z and Z_b are resistors with ϕ and ϕ_b both equal to zero, then for balance $\phi_d = \phi$. This means that Z and Z_d must both be inductive or both capacitive for balance. If ϕ and ϕ_d are both equal to zero, the second equation for balance becomes $\phi_b + \phi = 0$. This means that Z_b is inductive and Z is capacitive or vice versa.

General inductance bridge The inductance bridge of Fig 2 has resistors R and R_b as ratio arms and compares an unknown Z to a standard consisting of R_d and L_d . If the standard L_d is variable, it and R_d are varied to reduce the detector voltage to zero. This balances the bridge and the equations of balance become

$$I / L_d = R / R_b = R / R_d$$

Sometimes a substitution method is preferred. In this case the balance is obtained as above with any good quality inductance for L_d . The unknown Z is then replaced by a standard L in series with R . The bridge is balanced a second time by varying L and R . When balance is obtained, I equals I and R equals R_d . For inductance standard, see **INDUCTOMETER**.

If the standard is not adjustable, it becomes necessary to vary one of the ratio arm R or R_b or both as well as R_d in order to obtain balance.

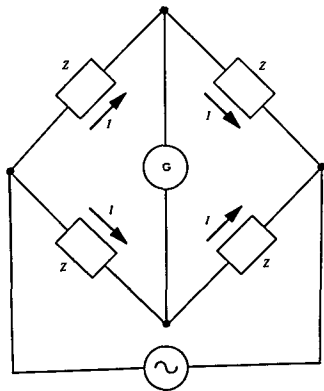


Fig 1 General impedance bridge

Ob i u ly the b t t u t i method ann t be p
pl ed wher n ly f i x e d t a n d r d a s v a l l i e

Theoret ally the d t u n f o r i l a n c e i s i n d e p e n d e n t o f f e q u e n c y I n p a c t e i l e c p a s t a n e b e t w e n t r n a n d b t e e n l a y e r o f w r i n t h e t w o c i l w i l l b e d f f e n t d t h i g h f e q n e i t h b r i d g c a n b b a l a c e d a t n l o n e f r e q u e n c y a t a t i m U n d e r c h o n d u t n h a r m n e n t h e u p p l y r t g e w i l l m k e a b s o l u t e b a l a n c e i m p o s s i b l e

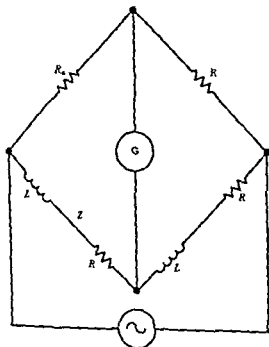


Fig 2 G l d c t e b d g

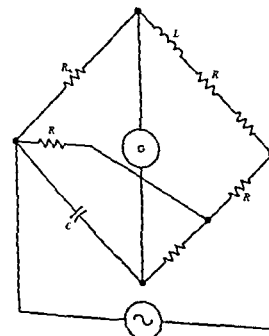


Fig 3 A n d e r s o n b r i d g

When h a r m n i s a r e p r e s e n t t h e b r i d g h i d l e b a l a n c e d b y r e d u c i n g t h e f u n d a m e n t a l m p o t i n t h e d e t e c t o r o l t a g e t o z e r o T h i s c o n d i t i o n d o e s n o t n e e d a n y c o r r e p n d t o m i n i m u m d e t e c t o l t a e A t e c h n i c i a n c a n s m t i m e s a c h i a l a l a e b y e a r a t a u d i f r e q u e n c y I n o c c i l l o c p e p r d e s a b e t t e r m e a n f i e e n g w h e n t h e f u n d a m e n t a l h a s b e e n r e d u c e d t o z e r o

Anderson bridge T h i s b r i d g e s h o w n i n F i g 3 c a n b e u s e d t o m e a s u r e t h e i n d u c t a n c e L i n t e r m o f a s t a n d a r d c a p a c i t a n c e C M o t l a b o r a t o r i e h a s n o c k m e r e a s i b l e c a p a c i t o r t h n i d c t o m e t e r s A m e a s u r e m e n t d e p e n d u p o n i n d u c t i m e t e s s m o r e l i k e l y t o b e d e l a y e d t h n a m e a s u r m e n t d e p e n d u p o n a p a c i t a n c e b e c a s e t h e a p p p a t e i n d c t o m e t e r i s n o t a v a i l a b l e T h e e q u a t i o n s o f b a l a n c e o f t h i s b r i d g e a r e

$$L_b = \left(R_d + \frac{R_d}{R_e} \right) R_o C$$

$$R_b + r_b = \frac{R_o R_d}{R_e}$$

T h e b r i d g e i s u s u a l l y b a l a n c e d b y v a r y i n g r a n d C T h e e c n d e q u a t i o n i n d i c a t e t h a t i f r o m e c h a n c e o f R R a n d R n g a t e r m i g h t b e r e q u i r e d C o n s e q u e n t l y i f a b a l a n c e d o e s n o t e m p l e b y a r y i n g C a n d r_b R o r R s h o u l d b e i n c r e a s e d o r R s h o u l d b e d e c r e a s e d T h i s w i l l i n c r e a s e R R_d / R w h i c h i s n e e d e d b e a u e b a l a n c e a n n t b e b t a i n e d u n l e s s t h i s q u a n t i t y i s a t l a s t a s l a g e s R

Carey Foster bridge T h i s e f u l t r i d f i r d e t e r m i n g m t l i n d u c t a n c e i s s h o w n i n F i g 4 T h i s b r i d g e i s t h e t a l l y i d e p e n d e n t o f f r e q u e n c y W h e n t h e b r i d g e i s b a l a n c e d

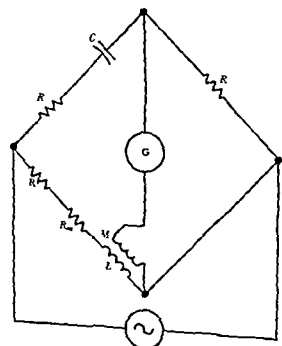


Fig 4 C a r e y F o s t e r b r i d g

$$M = R (R_M + R) C$$

$$L = (R + R_M) (R_M + R) C$$

If these equations are to be used directly the resistance R_M of the coil must be measured by some other circuit arrangement. If a known large resistance R is connected in series with the coil it may be possible to neglect R_M in comparison with R and the equations become

$$M = R RC$$

$$L = (R + R_M) RC$$

Resistances R and R_M are varied to obtain balance. An obvious advantage of this bridge is that all balancing operations can be performed by varying resistances. The capacitance C may be a constant standard.

Any discussion of impedance bridge operation should include mention of Wagner ground precautions. Each portion of a bridge has a capacitance to ground as well as to all other portions. In the case of high impedance circuits and at high frequencies the capacitances are not negligible. A Wagner ground consists essentially of two bridge arms placed across the source with the common point grounded. The Wagner ground is balanced to bring the detector terminals to ground potential. When this is accomplished the stray capacitances no longer affect the balance or give spurious unbalance signals in the detector. **See IMPEDANCE MEASUREMENTS HIGH FREQUENCY INDUCTANCE MEASUREMENT [H 50]**

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Inductance measurement

The determination of an electromagnetic parameter of an electric circuit. The electric current in a circuit produces a magnetic field which is considered to consist of lines of magnetic flux that link the circuit. Whenever the magnetic field linking a circuit changes a voltage is induced in the circuit. The faster the change in the field the larger is the induced voltage. When there is no ferromagnetic material present the magnetic field is proportional to the current i and the induced voltage ϵ is proportional to the rate of change of current

$$v = L di/dt$$

The proportionality factor L is by definition the self inductance of the circuit. If ϵ is measured in volts and if the rate of change of current is in amperes per second the inductance has the dimensions of henries.

The direction of the induced voltage is specified by Lenz's law which states that the current that would be produced by the induced voltage would be in a direction that opposes the change in the magnetic field. Hence the inductance of a circuit represents the tendency of the circuit to resist a change in current. This is analogous to the manner

in which the mass of an object tends to resist a change in its velocity. *See* **INDUCTANCE LENZ'S LAW**

If the magnetic field produced by the current in one circuit links with another circuit the relation between the voltage and the rate of change of current still holds. The proportionality factor in this case is called the mutual inductance. *See* **COUPLED CIRCUITS**

If ferromagnetic material is present saturation and hysteresis effects may be evident for some values of current. For such cases several definitions may be introduced or the concept may be discarded entirely. An effective inductance is defined as the ratio of the effective induced voltage to the effective rate of change of current and is a function of the maximum current. When the current changes about a certain average value and the magnitude of the change is small compared to the average value the above definition specifies an incremental inductance. This inductance is a function of both the average current and the magnitude of the change.

Inductance standards Coils constructed so that their dimensions and consequently their inductance remain constant over long periods of time are used as inductance standards. If the dimensions are known the inductance can be computed from the formula

$$L = NP$$

where N is the number of turns of wire comprising the inductor and P is a proportionality coefficient. Such an inductance is called a primary standard (*see* **INDUCTOMETR**). Standards are usually maintained at constant temperature to keep the coil size and therefore the inductance from changing in value.

When the inductance cannot be computed precisely it may be measured by comparing it with a primary standard and it would then be called a secondary standard.

The effect of inductance is manifested only when the current in a circuit is changing with time. Any means of measuring inductance must employ changing current. Usually the current i is an alternating current of frequency f given by

$$i = I_m \sin 2\pi ft$$

with a maximum instantaneous value of I_m . The voltage induced by the changing magnetic field is

$$v = 2\pi f L I_m \cos 2\pi ft = V \cos 2\pi ft$$

where L is the self inductance in henries. The ratio of V to I_m is called the reactance of the circuit and is represented by X in

$$X = 2\pi f L = V / I_m$$

Impedance measurement This is the determination of the total effect of a circuit element. Every inductance is wound with wire that has resistance. This means that very inductance has resistance and entirely ideal inductance is not realizable.

(emf) the charge being considered is negative. Thus

$$E = \frac{F}{-q} = -Bl \sin \theta = -\frac{\mathcal{E}}{l}$$

or $\mathcal{E} = Bl \sin \theta$

where l is the length of the conductor in a direction perpendicular to the field and $\sin \theta$ is the component of the velocity that is perpendicular to the field. If B is in weber/m², l is in meters and v is in meters/sec, the emf \mathcal{E} is in volts.

This emf exists in the conductor as it moves through the field whether or not there is a closed circuit. A current would not be set up unless there were a closed circuit and then only if the rest of the circuit does not move through the field in exactly the same manner as the rod. For example, if the rod slides along stationary tracks that are connected together, there will be a current in the closed circuit. However, if the two ends of the rod were connected by a wire that moved through the field with the rod, there would be an emf induced in the wire that would be equal to that in the rod and opposite in sense to the circuit. Therefore the net emf in the circuit would be zero and there would be no current.

Emf due to change of flux. When a coil is in a magnetic field, there will be a flux Φ threading the coil, the magnitude of which will depend upon the area of the coil and its orientation in the field. The flux is given by $\Phi = BA \cos \theta$, where A is the area of the coil and θ is the angle between the normal to the plane of the coil and the magnetic field. Whenever there is a change in the flux threading the coil, there will be an induced emf in the coil while the change is taking place. The change in flux may be caused by a change in the magnetic induction of the field or by a motion of the coil. The magnitude of the induced emf depends upon the number of turns of the coil N and upon the rate of change of flux (see FARADAY'S LAW OF INDUCTION).

$$\mathcal{E} = -N \frac{d\Phi}{dt}$$

The negative sign refers to the direction of the emf in the coil that is always in such a direction to oppose the change that causes it, as required by Lenz's law (see LENZ'S LAW). If the change is an increase in flux, the emf would be in a direction to oppose the increase by causing a flux in a direction opposite to that of the increasing flux; if the flux is decreasing, the emf is in such a direction as to oppose the decrease that is to produce a flux that is in the same direction as the decreasing flux.

Consider the case of a flat coil of area A rotating with uniform angular velocity ω about an axis perpendicular to a uniform magnetic field of flux density B . For any position of the coil the flux threading the coil is $\Phi = BA \cos \theta = BA \cos \omega t$, where the zero of time is taken when θ is zero and the

normal to the plane of the coil is parallel to the field. Then the emf induced as the coil rotates is given by

$$\mathcal{E} = -N \frac{d\Phi}{dt} = -NBA \frac{d(\cos \theta)}{dt} = NBA\omega \sin \omega t$$

The induced emf is sinusoidal, varying from zero when the plane of the coil is perpendicular to the field to a maximum value when the plane of the coil is parallel to the field.

Self induction. If the flux threading a coil is produced by a current in the coil, any change in that current will cause a change in flux, and thus there will be an induced emf while the current is changing. This process is called self induction. The emf of self induction is proportional to the rate of change of current. The ratio of the emf of induction to the rate of change of current in the coil is called the self inductance of the coil.

Mutual induction. The process by which an emf is induced in one circuit by a change of current in a neighboring circuit is called mutual induction. Flux produced by a current in a circuit A (Fig. 2) threads or links circuit B . When there is a change of current in circuit A , there is a change in the flux linking coil B and an emf is induced in circuit B while the change is taking place. Transformers operate on the principle of mutual induction. See TRANSFORMER.

The mutual inductance of two circuits is defined as the ratio of the emf induced in one circuit B to the rate of change of current in the other circuit A . For a detailed discussion of self and mutual inductance, see INDUCTANCE.

Coupling coefficient. This refers to the fraction of the flux of one circuit that threads the second circuit. If two coils A and B having turns N_A and N_B respectively are so related that all the flux of either thread both coils, the respective self inductances are

$$L_A = \frac{N_A \Phi_A}{I_A} \quad \text{and} \quad L_B = \frac{N_B \Phi_B}{I_B}$$

and the mutual inductance of the pair is given by

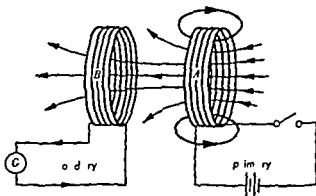


Fig. 2 Mutual induction. A emf is induced in the secondary when the current in the primary (R L W B M W W H I K V M g Phys for S e e and E g e i g M Gr w H 1957)

$$M = \frac{\lambda \Phi_B}{I_B} = \frac{\lambda_B \Phi_A}{I}$$

$$M = \frac{\lambda_A \lambda_B \Phi_B}{I_B} = \frac{\lambda_A \Phi_A \lambda_B \Phi_B}{I_A I_B} = L_A L_B$$

$$M = \sqrt{L_A L_B}$$

In g r l n t all th fl x f om ne circuit the j the sec nd The fr t n f the flux f om i t A that the d r u t B depends up n th d t n e b t w n the two c r u t th r o i t i n th respect t h o t h r and the pre n e e f ferr magn tic mate rial n the neighbord e the a a c e e as a h e l d It f l o w s th t f o the gen e alca e

$$M \leq \sqrt{L L}$$

The rat f the m t l ndu tan e of the p o to th quare oot f the pr d ct f the ndividual k f nd ta alled the oeffic nt f c u pl g l

$$\lambda = \frac{M}{\sqrt{L L_B}}$$

The upl g effie th a m m u m v l u f nty if all the flux th ad both circuit z t f n ne f the flux f om o e i ut th d the oth F r all th nd t i n K h a alu between 0 a d 1

Applications The phe m o of lctromag n t c i d t i n h a g t m a n y i m p t a t a p p l i c a t i o n m o d r n t e c h n l g y F a m p l e e C o l p i t o c i c a l i t s C e f r a t o r e l e c t r i c I d l c t r o h e a t i c M i c r o h o e M o t o r e l e c t r i c S y s t e m s [K v 1]

B l g p h S S A t t w o o d E l t r i c a n d M g t F i d 3 d e d 1949 L P g e i N I A d a m s P r i n c i p l s f E l e c t r i c i t y d M g t i s m 3 d e d 199 F W S e P r i n c i p l s o f P h y s c s o l 2 191 R P W h E l e m e n t a r y d M g e t i c m 195

Induction electrostatic

A m t h o d h b y l e c t r i c a l o d u t b e c o m e s l e c t r i f i e d w i t h n h g e d b o d y I t u f l e s a s e f m t h f i t h t f e v r y l e c t b r e g e d e s o m h n e q a l a d p p r i d d b g F d i t l d d e E L E C T R O S T A T I C [K v W L]

Induction magnetic

A t q a s t i t h t s e d a a q a t a t m f m g n e t i c f i l d I t d e f e d s t e r m s f i t h t e n e h r g m i g n t h f i l d f o m t h q i

$$B = \frac{F}{qr \theta}$$

h n th m g n t d o l t h m g n t d u t l f i t h f t h h g q w h h m c w t h p e e d t d e c t n m a k n g a g l o w t h d e c t f i t h f i l d T h d t

th r e t r q a n t i t y B i s t h e d i r e c t i o n i n w h c h t h f o r e o n t h e m i g c h a r g e i z e r The magn t i n d u c t i o n m a y a l o b e p r e d i n t e r m s o f t h e f o r c e F o n a c u r r e n t e l e m e n t o f l e n g t h l a n d c u r r e n t I T h a t i

$$B = \frac{F}{Il \sin \theta}$$

The m k s u n t f m a g n e t c i d u c t i o n i s d e r e d f r m t h i q a t o n b y e p r e s n t h e f o r c e s n e w t o n s t h e c u r r e n t i n a m p e r e s a n d t h l g t h i n m e t e r s T h u n t f B s t h u s t h e n e w t o / a m p e r e m e t e r

Magnet c flu den ty is the m gnetic flux per unit a a thro h a urface perpend c lar to the magnet c induction M gnetic flux den ty and m g e t i n d u t i n a e t w o t e r m s t h a t a r e e q u i v a l e n t S e M A G N E T I C F I E L D M A G N E T I C F L U X

The magn ti ndu tion may be r p e e n t e d b y l a s t a t a e d a w n s t h a t a t e v r y p n t i t h f l d t h t n g e t t t h e l i e i t t d r e c t i o n o f t h e m g n e t i c i n d u t i n T r e p r e e t h e m a g n e t i c i n d u c t i o n q u a l i t a t i v l y a s m a n y s c h l i n e m a y b e d a w n a a r e e c e s a y t o p r t a y t h f i l d I f h o w e v e r t h l i n e s r t o r e p e n t t h m a g n e t i c i d e t o n q u n t i t y l y a n a b i t r a r y c h o i c e m u t b e m a d e f r t h n u m b e r o f l i e s t o r e p e n t a g e v e n r n d t i o O e u c h h o c e s t h a t i n w h c h t h n u m b e r o f l i n e s p e r s q u a e m e t e r o f u r l a e s e p e n d i c f r t o B e t e q a l i t h v l e o f B T h e s e l i n e s a r e c a l l e d m n e t i c f i x O l n e f i d u t i o n a s h e r s e l e c t e d i s c a l l e d a f l u x o f l i n e s T h e o r r e s p o n d g u n t o f f l u x d e n t y i s t h e n t h e w h e r p e q a r e m e t e r F r m t h m n e o f d e f i n i n g f l x e d h e e t f l o w s t h a t t h e w e b r p r q u a e m e t e r i q u i v l e t o t h t n e w t o / a m p e r e m e t e r

An t h r u u t o f f l u x d e n t y i s d e f i n e d b y u s i g n t m e t r g a m e d (c g s) u s b o t h t h d e f i n g e q a t i n f r m a g n t i n d u c t i o n a n d i n t h e a a w h c h t h r e s u n t f i x T h s e g n t o f f l u x d n t y i c l l e d t h e g a u s T h e r e l t o s h p b e t w e e n t h e g a u s a n d t h e w e b e r s g i v e n b y 1 w e b e r / m = 10 g a u s S e G A U S

F r d u s n o f a n r e s t a n t d e v e c k n w n a b i a t r w h i h u t l z e t h e p r i n c i p l f m a n e t c i a d c t n P A R T I C L E A C C E L E R A T O R [K v M] B l g p h y E P P c k E l e c t r i c i t y a n d M g t u r n s 193 F W S a s P r i n c i p l s f P h y s c o l 2 1951

Induction coil

A d i e f o p r d u c e s j g h l t a g l t e r n t n g u r r t h i g h o l t g p l s f r m a l w o l t a g e d r e t e r n t T h l a g i m o d r n e o f t h e i d t n e l t h i g t n e t m o f i n t e r n) m h t i n n g i n e s c h a n u t m b l e g i e (s I C I V I T I O N S Y S T E M) D r e c e s o f m a r a n t c t n k n o w n a s h a t o r s a r e d y r e t f i a d s y n h o m r t r s (e l e v a t o r)

Fig 1 h w a t y p i c a l i r e t d g r m f a n d c t o l The p r i m a r y l w i d n t h o e o t s o f o l y f e w t u r n T h e s e c o n d a r y c o l w d e r t h p m a r c o t f l a g e m b e r f t u W h e t h e w t c h S i l d t h

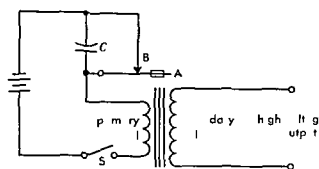


Fig 1 Typical circuit for an induction coil

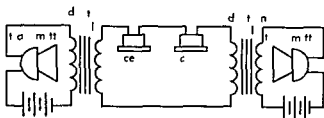


Fig 2 Inducto coils telephone circuit

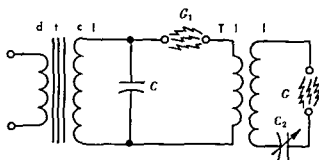


Fig 3 Circuit diagram of Tesla coil

iron core becomes magnetized and attracts the armature A. This automatically breaks the circuit to the coil through contact B and the armature. The armature is returned to its initial position by a spring and again make contact with the contact B restoring the circuit to the primary coil. The cycle is then repeated rapidly.

While current is flowing in the primary coil a magnetic field is produced. When the contact between A and B is broken the magnetic field collapses and induces a high voltage in the secondary coil similar to transformer action (see TRANSFORMER). The self-inductance of the coil must be limited therefore the core is a straight bundle of iron wires which minimize eddy current losses rather than a closed iron circuit as is used in a transformer.

The capacitor C is placed across the breaker contacts to reduce the voltage across the contacts at the moment of their opening and thus reduce sparking. Sparking is caused by the induced voltage in the primary winding resulting from the collapsing magnetic field. The capacitor allows some of the energy of the magnetic field to be converted to electrostatic energy in the capacitor rather than into heat at the contacts.

Induction coils of a different type are used in telephone circuits to step up the voltage from the transmitter and match the impedance of the line.

Therefore no interrupter contacts are necessary. The battery and primary winding are connected in series with the transmitter as in Fig 2. The secondary winding and the receiver are connected in series with the line. This circuitry reduces the required battery voltage.

Still another type of induction coil called a reactor is really a one winding transformer designed to produce a definite voltage drop for a given current (see REACTOR ELECTRIC).

In 1892 Nicola Tesla used a form of induction coil to obtain currents of very high frequency and high voltages. The oscillatory discharge of a Leyden jar was used as the interrupter. The terminal of the secondary of an induction coil are connected one to the inner coating and the other to the outer coating of an insulated Leyden jar C_1 (Fig 3). The circuit is completed through the primary winding of the Tesla coil and the primary gap C_1 . The primary of the Tesla coil consists of a half dozen turns of wires wound on a nonmagnetic core. The secondary consists of many turns. The two coils are separated by air or oil as insulation. The alternation from the Leyden jar may have a frequency of several million cps. Hence the current induced in the secondary is not only of high voltage but also of very high frequency. [C.C.]

Induction heating

The heating of a nominally electrical conducting material by current induced by a varying electromagnetic field.

The principle of the induction heating process is similar to that of a transformer. In Fig 1 the induction coil can be considered the primary winding of a transformer with the work piece as a single turn secondary. When an alternating current flows in the primary coil, eddy current will be induced in the work piece. The induced currents are called eddy current. The current flowing in the work piece can be considered the summation of all of the eddy current.

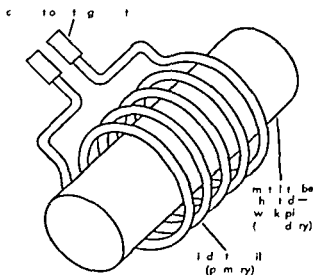


Fig 4 Basic elements of induction heating

In the design of electrical apparatus the induced eddy current is minimized because they reduce the efficiency (See CORE LOSS). However, in induction heating the maximum efficiency is desired. The efficiency depends upon the distance between the work piece and the high current carrying conductor used for the maximum induced eddy current with the high frequency.

Applications Induction heating is widely employed in metal working and try to heat metal for soldering, brazing, annealing, hardening and for die casting.

As compared to other electrical processes it has the inherent advantages:

1. Heating is directed exactly into the material. It is the simplest and most effective method of heating. It is limited by the electrical power of the transformer. In electrical processes such as furnace heating, the heat is lost to the surroundings.

2. Because of the efficiency of the heating, localized and the heated area is easily controlled by the shape and size of the electrode.

3. Induction heating is a self-contained unit. It is a simple and compact unit. It is the product of the electrical power supply.

4. It is a self-contained unit. It is the product of the electrical power supply.

5. Start-up time is short and standby losses are low.

6. Work is done in a better environment. The atmosphere is clean and radiated heat is low.

The induction heating process. The induced current in the work piece flows through parallel electrodes. The current density is high in the center of the work piece.

Because of the efficiency of the induction heating process, the depth of the heat treatment is increased. The depth of the heat treatment is increased.

The depth of the heat treatment is increased. The depth of the heat treatment is increased.

The depth of the heat treatment is increased. The depth of the heat treatment is increased.

The depth of the heat treatment is increased. The depth of the heat treatment is increased.

The depth of the heat treatment is increased. The depth of the heat treatment is increased.

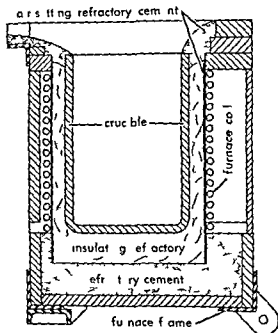


Fig 2. Crucible for induction heating of die casting material.

work piece measured at right angles to the coil turns. The accompanying table shows the range of frequency used for applications of the induction heating process. See also DIELECTRIC HEATING.

In most heating applications the lowest frequency content with efficient heating is desired because it reduces the initial cost of equipment and gives up with frequency.

When the work piece is small, when it is desired to concentrate the heating on a small area, as in surface hardening, it is necessary to use high frequencies even though efficiency is lower. It can be accomplished at a lower frequency.

In large production uses, a half-gigawatt power frequency with parallel electrodes is employed to maximize production at minimum equipment cost.

Power sources. The equipment used as a power source depends on the frequency range for the application. For low frequency (generally 60

Frequencies used in induction dielectric heating

| Frequency f | Source of power | Uses |
|----------------------|----------------------------|---|
| 60-600 | Rotary generators or coils | Melting, casting, heating, brazing, soldering, etc. |
| 960-10,000 | Motor-generator set | Induction heating, brazing, etc. |
| 10,000-60,000 | Coil generators | Induction heating, brazing, etc. |
| 100,000-1,000,000 | Vacuum tube oscillators | Induction heating, brazing, etc. |
| 1,000,000-90,000,000 | Vacuum tube oscillators | Induction heating, brazing, etc. |

cycles) are used suitable transformers power factor correction capacitors and control equipment are required

For higher frequencies up to 10 000 cps induction type alternators are used These are usually driven by induction motors and are available in ratings from $7\frac{1}{2}$ to over 300 kilowatts

Converters are used for the 10 000–60 000 cps range principally for small scale melting These produce the desired frequency by repeatedly charging a large capacitor from the 60-cycle line and discharging it through an output circuit tuned to the desired frequency The output is a train of damped oscillations

For frequencies above 200 kilocycles vacuum tube oscillators are used These are self excited and are complete with high voltage rectifier oscillator tank circuit controls and instrumentation When operating from a three phase supply they put out a continuous wave of rf power

Process use Induction heating is used for many heat processes as shown in the table The construction of a typical melting furnace is shown in Fig 2 (see FURNACE CONSTRUCTION) An induction heater used for hardening is shown in Fig 3

Induction heating differs from other methods of heat treating in that it heats the metals very rapidly and that holding time at hardening temperature approaches zero A minimum of time is there-

fore available for metallurgical reactions, and this has a significant influence on the election of steel to be used See HEAT TREATMENT (METALS AND ALLOYS) For other electric heating methods see HEATING ELECTRIC [C.F.A.]

Bibliography D W Brown *Induction Heating Practice* 1956 G H Brown C N Hoyler and R A Bierwirth *Theory and Application of Radio-Frequency Heatin* 1947 J W Cable *Induction and Dielectric Heating* 1954

Induction motor

An alternating current motor in which the currents in the secondary winding (usually the rotor) are created solely by induction The e current result from voltages induced in the secondary by the magnetic field of the primary winding (usually the stator) An induction motor operates slightly below synchronous speed and is sometimes called an asynchronous (meaning not synchronous) motor See SYNCHRONOUS SPEED

Induction motors are the most commonly used electric motors because of their simple construction efficiency good speed regulation and low cost Polyphase induction motors come in all sizes and find wide use where polyphase power is available Single phase induction motors are found mainly in fractional horsepower sizes and those up to 25 hp where only single phase power is available See ALTERNATING CURRENT MOTOR

POLYPHASE INDUCTION MOTORS

There are two principal types of polyphase induction motors squirrel cage and wound rotor machines The differences in these machines is in the construction of the rotor The stator construction is the same and is also identical to the stator of a synchronous motor Both squirrel cage and wound rotor machines can be designed for two- or three-phase current

Stator The stator of a polyphase induction motor produces a rotating magnetic field when supplied with balanced polyphase voltage (equal in magnitude and 90 electrical degrees apart for two-phase motors 120 electrical degree apart for three phase motors) The e voltages are supplied to phase windings which are identical in all respects The currents resulting from the e voltage produce a magnetomotive force (mmf) of constant magnitude which rotates at synchronous speed The speed is proportional to the frequency of the supply voltage and inversely proportional to the number of poles constructed on the stator

Figure 1a is a simplified diagram of a three-phase two-pole Y connected stator supplied with currents I_1 , I_2 and I_3 Each stator winding produces a pulsating mmf which varies sinusoidally with time The resultant mmf of the three winding (Fig 1c) is constant in magnitude and rotates at synchronous speed Figure 1f shows the direction of the mmf in the stator for times t_1 , t_2 and t_3 shown in Fig 1a and how the resultant mmf

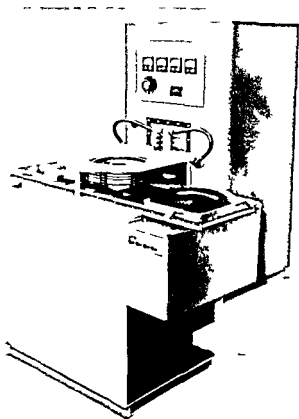


Fig 3 Manually loaded induction heater for hardening of gears The gear is loaded on a platform in the center The spindle rotates the gear and heating is done by a liquid chf heating coil (Westinghouse Electr Co p)

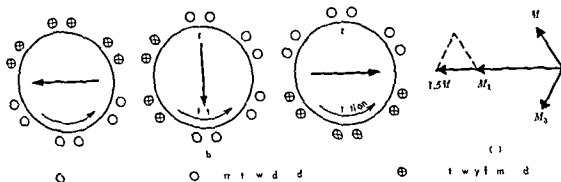
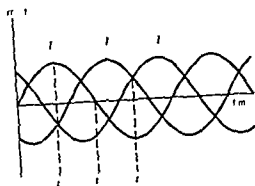
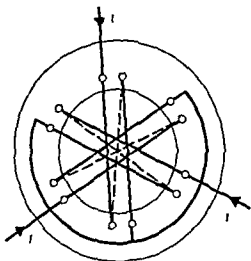


Fig 1 Th ph d ct m t () St t w d
ig d u ts (b) R t t g fi ld (c) Mmf p d ed
by t t w d g

1. The Th y h u p d N a

$$\lambda = \frac{170f}{p} \text{ mm}$$

h f th tr q n yles p d a d p
th n ml f t t poles F y g en f
q f p t th v h u peed de
t m ed b th mb of p le F 60 ycl f e
q two-pol m t h synchr n u pe d
f 3600 pm f p l m t 1800 pm a d o
f d t l f t r w d g W i n i cs
L T T III r r)

Squirrel cage rotor Fgu ? sh w the b
l i g d ol g fi f qu elc g r t r
Th l r k ed gled t p ev t gk ng
pe t g bel w n l peed) nd t re-
d ve Th d g p d n th fr rsen
th t l l m th l t g d ed the t r
ka t s th t t fl Tl umle f pol n
l k g t t al equal t th mber
l pol ted by th t t w d g

fg 3 h w h w th tw m tr l ment i
t A co t lockw t t f th tas

fl x aue olt ge to be i d c d in the top ba
of the roto a o tw rd d rection nd in the b t
t m bars i wa d d ect n Currents will flow
i these b r in the aed rection The e curre s
i ter t w th the tator flu a d p od ce f on
the tor b in the d ect n f the t t n of the
st t flux

When the idling speed of the rotor is held
synchronous speed. At this speed there is no mo-
tion of the flux with respect to the rotor conduc-
tor. As a result, there is no voltage induced in the

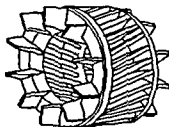


Fig 2 Sq l-c g t f i d ct m t

Fig 2 Sq l-c g t f i d ct m t

Wound rotor A wound rotor induction motor can provide both high starting torque and good speed regulation. This is accomplished by adding external resistance to the rotor circuit during starting and removing the resistance after speed is attained.

The wound rotor has a polyphase winding in the stator winding and must be wound for the same number of poles. Voltage are induced in these windings at the same rate in the squirrel cage rotor bars. The windings are connected to slip rings so that connections may be made to external impedances usually used to limit starting current and improve power factor of control.

Figure 5 shows the connection for a rheostat used to control the speed of the motor. The rheostat is limited to the starting current drawn from the supply at a value less than that required by a squirrel cage motor. The result is a gradually reduced torque and the motor is brought to a stop by the action of the rheostat.

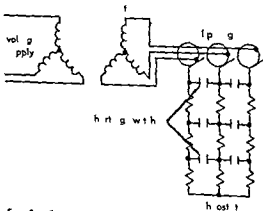


Fig 5 Control of speed of wound rotor induction motor

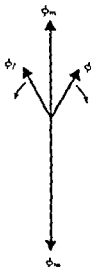


Fig 6 Fluxes associated with the single-phase induction motor

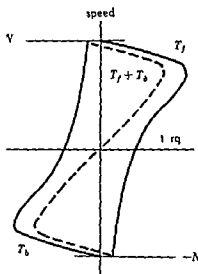


Fig 7 Torque-slip characteristics of a single-phase induction motor

Speed control can be obtained in Fig 4. However, this method of speed control is inherently inefficient and converts the motor into a variable speed motor rather than an essentially constant speed motor. For other means of controlling speed of polyphase and constant speed motors and for other types of ac motor, see ALTERNATING CURRENT MOTOR.

SINGLE-PHASE INDUCTION MOTORS

Single phase induction motor displays poorer performance characteristics than polyphase machines, but are used where polyphase supply is not available. They are most commonly small sizes (1/4 hp or less) in domestic and industrial applications. Their particular disadvantage is low power factor, low efficiency and the need for special starting device.

The rotor of a single-phase induction motor is of the squirrel cage type. The stator has a main winding which produces pulsating field. At the same time, the pulsating field can be decomposed into two components that will act as gap flux to produce rotor torque. However, since the rotor is rotating, it produces a flux at right angles in both phase and time with the main field and thereby produces a rotating field comparable to that produced by the stator of a two-phase motor.

An explanation of this is based on the concept that a pulsating field is the equivalent of two perpendicular rotating fields of one-half the magnitude of the resultant pulsating field. In Fig 6, ϕ_m is the maximum value of the stator flux which is shown by its two components ϕ_{r1} and ϕ_{r2} which represent the two oppositely rotating fields of constant magnitude of $\phi_m/2$. Each component ϕ_{r1} and ϕ_{r2} produces torque T_1 and T_2 in the motor. Figure 7 shows that the sum of the torques is the total torque. However, if stated the sum of the torques is not the speed of rotation will be maintained by the resultant torque.

This machine has good performance at high speed. But to make this motor useful it must have some way of producing a starting torque. The method by which this starting torque is obtained designates the type of the single phase induction motor.

Split phase motor This motor has two stator windings: the customary main winding and a starting winding located 90 electrical degrees from the main winding as in Fig. 8a. The starting winding has fewer turns of smaller wire to give a higher resistance to reactance ratio than the main winding. Therefore their currents I_m (main winding) and I (starting winding) are out of time phase as in Fig. 8c when the windings are supplied by a common voltage V . These currents produce an elliptical

field (equivalent to a uniform rotating field superimposed on a pulsating field) which causes a unidirectional torque at standstill. This torque will start the motor. When sufficient speed has been attained the circuit of the starting winding can be opened by a centrifugal switch and the motor will operate with a characteristic illustrated by the dashed curve of Fig. 7.

Capacitor motor The stator windings of this motor are similar to the split phase motor. However the starting winding is connected to the supply through a capacitor (Fig. 9a). This results in a starting winding current which leads the applied voltage. The motor then has winding currents at standstill which are nearly 90° apart in time as well as 90° apart in space. High starting torque and

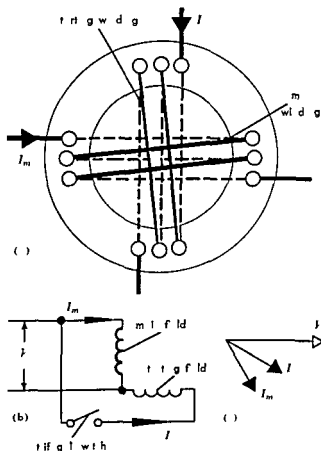


Fig. 8 Split phase motor (a) Windings (b) Winding connections (c) Vector diagram

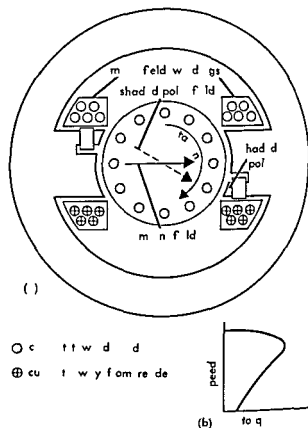


Fig. 10 Shaded pole motor (a) Cross-sectional view (b) Characteristic

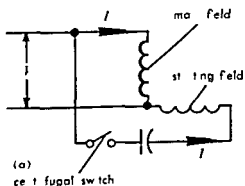


Fig. 9 Capacitor motor (a) Winding connections (b) Vector diagram (c) Characteristic

high power factor as they are obtained. The starting winding circuit can be opened by a centrifugal switch when the motor comes up to speed. A typical motor is shown in Fig. 9c.

In some motors two capacitors are used. When the motor is first connected to the line supply the two capacitors are connected in parallel in the starting circuit. As the motor speed increases, the capacitor is disconnected by a centrifugal switch in the other motor series with the starting winding. The motor has high starting torque and good power factor.

Shaded pole motor. This motor is used extensively where low power and large starting torque are required, as in a squirrel-cage motor. It is used with a salient pole stator excited by the supply. Each salient pole is lapped so that a portion of the pole face can be enclosed by a short-circuited winding, which has no coil.

The main winding produces a field between the poles as in Fig. 10. The shaded coil acts to delay the flux passing through them, so that it lags the flux in the unshaded portions. This gives a sweeping magnet action across the pole face and consequently a rotation of the rotor bars opposite the pole face and results in a torque on the rotor. This torque is much smaller than that of a split-phase motor, but is sufficient for many purposes. A typical motor is shown in Fig. 10b.

For the single-phase alternating-current motor see REVEL O MOTOR, UNIVERSAL MOTOR. For synchronous motors see ALTERNATING-CURRENT MOTOR, RELECTA CE MOTOR. [A. C. CO.]
Bibliography: A. F. P. Chute, N. T. C. Lloyd, and A. C. Conrad, *Alt. at. eng. & M. H. 3d ed.* 1913.

Inductometer

A device for winding the inductance may be fed at the rate of primary standard rate and the inductance may be adjusted by means of the coil inductance by means of a movable iron core.

The device is used to measure the inductance of a circuit in parallel with the rate of change of magnetic flux. For flux linkage λ it is of a circuit

$$= \lambda \frac{d\phi}{dt}$$

If the inductance of the circuit is present, the flux ϕ is proportional to the magnetomotive force λ .

$$\phi = P\lambda$$

The proportionality factor P is called the permeance of the flux path. The rate of change of flux is equal to $P \frac{d\lambda}{dt}$ and the rate of change of flux is equal to $P \frac{d\lambda}{dt}$.

$$= P \frac{d\lambda}{dt}$$

For the purpose of the circuit the equation is $L = \frac{d\lambda}{di}$.

$$L = \lambda^2 P$$

The formula is derived, assuming that all of the flux link with all of the current. In reality there is some flux that link with only part of the current. When the formula is corrected to include partial linkages λ and the permeance of the path of the flux that enters into the partial linkages as well as the complete linkages λ

$$L = \lambda^2 P + \lambda^2 P$$

A standard inductance is constructed by winding a coil on a form having dimensions that are tabulated. Some material dry out absorb moisture over the years and consequently have continuous variation. The material on which a standard inductance is wound must not be subject to such changes. Materials of some synthetic fibers have been found suitable. A helical groove is cut in the material, and the coil is placed in the groove.

The wire should be soft enough to conform to the groove. It should be annealed so that the resistance and the current density are uniform. The coil and the form are maintained at constant temperature to reduce the tendency for rapid inductance variation. The material selected for the form should have low temperature coefficient of expansion in addition to negligible aging period change in size.

If the magnetic field produced by the current in the link with an other circuit, the voltage-rate-of-change-of-current is taken into account. The proportionality factor in this case is called the mutual inductance between the two circuits. The mutual inductance is represented by the symbol M or ϵ .

$$M = \lambda_1 \lambda_2 P$$

where λ_1 and λ_2 are the numbers of turns in the respective circuits, λ is the flux with the common flux and P is the permeance of the path of the common flux. The mutual inductance is often written

$$M = k\sqrt{L_1 L_2}$$

where L_1 and L_2 are the self inductances of the divided circuit, and k is a number less than unity called the coupling coefficient.

The equations with the formula for self inductance give

$$P P_2 = k P$$

where P_1 is the permeance of the path for flux produced by one circuit and P is the permeance of the path for the flux produced by the other circuit. If there were no leakage flux, $P_1 P$ and P_2 would all be equal, and k would be unity.

Campbell standard mutual inductance. This has a primary winding consisting of two coils placed on a cylindrical form similar to that used for the standard self inductance. On winding is placed in the groove near the head of the form. The coupling factor between the coils is adjusted so that the magnetic field produced by one coil will be exactly cancelled that produced by the other on

This machine has good performance at high speed. But to make this motor useful it must have some way of producing a starting torque. The method by which this starting torque is obtained designates the type of the single phase induction motor.

Split phase motor This motor has two stator windings: the customary main winding and a starting winding located 90 electrical degrees from the main winding as in Fig. 8a. The starting winding has fewer turns of smaller wire to give a higher resistance to reactance ratio than the main winding. Therefore their currents I_m (main winding) and I_s (starting winding) are out of time phase as in Fig. 8c when the windings are supplied by a common voltage V . The currents produce an elliptical

field (equivalent to a uniform rotating field superimposed on a pulsating field) which causes a unidirectional torque at standstill. The torque will start the motor. When sufficient speed has been attained the circuit of the starting winding can be opened by a centrifugal switch and the motor will operate with a characteristic illustrated by the dashed curve of Fig. 7.

Capacitor motor The stator windings of this motor are similar to the split phase motor. However the starting winding is connected to the supply through a capacitor (Fig. 9a). This results in a starting winding current which leads the applied voltage. The motor then has winding currents at standstill which are nearly 90° apart in time as well as 90° apart in space. High starting torque and

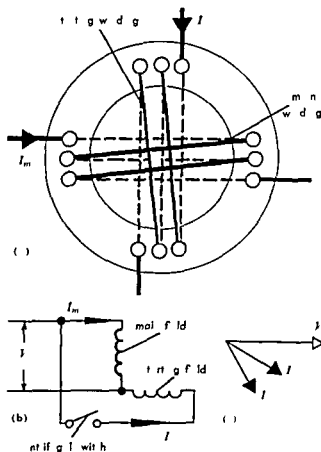


Fig. 8 Split phase motor (a) Winding (b) Winding connections (c) Vector diagram

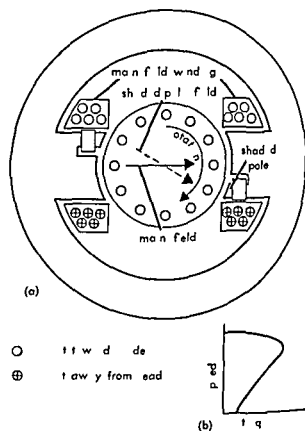


Fig. 10 Shaded pole motor (a) Cross sectional view (b) Characteristic

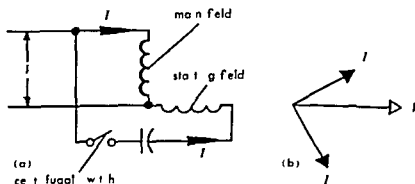


Fig. 9 Capacitor motor (a) Winding connections (b) Vector diagram (c) Characteristic

$$L = \frac{1}{2} P$$

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Inductometer

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$$\phi = P \Psi$$

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the c m p l e t e l n k a g e s \

$$L = \frac{1}{2} P + \frac{1}{2} P_p$$

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$$M = \frac{1}{2} L P_2$$

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$$M = k \sqrt{L_1 L_2}$$

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g i e

$$P P = k P$$

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Campbell standard mutual inductance Th
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th t the magn t i f i l d p r o d u c e d by o o l w i l l
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ring concentric with the supporting cylinder. The flux density in the neighborhood of this ring is very low. A secondary winding is placed on a form that supports it centered as nearly as possible on the zero-field ring. Any inaccuracies in placement of the coil or subsequent slight displacement will have nearly negligible effect on the flux enclosed and consequently upon the mutual inductance.

Ayrton and Perry inductometer This inductometer consists of two coils (see Fig. 1). One is wound on the outside of a spherical form, the other is wound on the inside of a spherical form. The first coil on its form is placed inside the second coil on its form. The inner coil can be turned through 180° to change the direction of the mutual linkages and the sign of the mutual inductance. If the two coils are connected in series, the effective inductance is equal to the sum of the self inductances plus twice the mutual inductance

$$L = L_1 + L_2 + 2M$$

The spherical forms make it possible to have the individual inductances as well as the maximum

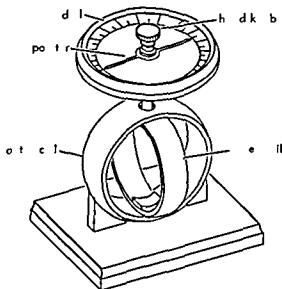


Fig. 1 Schematic drawing of Ayrton and Perry variable inductometer

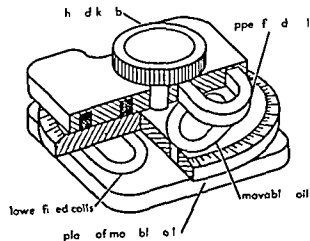


Fig. 2 Schematic drawing of Brooks variable inductor

mutual inductance all nearly equal. This tends to increase the maximum effective inductance of the series combination. More important, it results in a minimum effective inductance of nearly zero. A disadvantage of this construction is that the calibration of the effective inductance L for angular displacement θ between the two coils is irregular. Interpolation is always unsatisfactory with an irregular calibration. Linear interpolation generally cannot be used. If the scale is always set on a calibrated point to avoid interpolation, the inductometer in use is no better than one that is varied by means of a switch.

Brooks variable inductometer This inductometer provides a nearly linear scale. It consists of four fixed coils and two movable ones (see Fig. 2). The two movable coils, side by side in a plane, are sandwiched between two pairs of fixed coils. With the movable coils directly between the fixed coils, the mutual inductance is a maximum. By moving the coils in their plane so that the coil previously between two particular coils is placed between the other two coils, the mutual inductance is again a maximum but its sign has been changed. As in the Ayrton and Perry device, the series connected inductance is

$$L = L_1 + L_2 + 2M$$

By using link-shaped coils of special design, it is possible to obtain an inductance whose calibration is quite linear over most of the range. The calibration departs from linear a slight amount near both ends of the scale.

The sandwich-type construction of the Brooks inductometer contributes to the stability of its calibration. Any tendency for axial displacement of the movable coils from two of the fixed coils will be accompanied by a similar displacement toward the other two fixed coils, making the net change in mutual inductance negligible. See INDUCTANCE; INDUCTANCE BRIDGE; INDUCTANCE MEASUREMENT.

[H 50]

Bibliography F. A. Laws, *Electrical Measurements*, 2d ed., 1938; M. B. Stout, *Basic Electrical Measurements*, 1950.

Inductor

A device for introducing inductance into a circuit. The term covers devices with a wide range of uses, size, and type, including components for electric wave filters, tuned circuits, electrical measuring circuits, and energy storage devices.

Inductors are classified as fixed, adjustable, and variable. All are made either with or without magnetic core. Inductors without magnetic core are called air-core coils, although the actual core material may be a ceramic, a plastic, or some other nonmagnetic material. Inductors with magnetic core are called iron-core coils. A wide variety of magnetic materials is used in the design of inductors. Little iron. Magnetic cores for inductors for low frequencies or high energy ratings are mostly nonmagnetic materials with minimum

ring concentric with the supporting cylinder. The flux density in the neighborhood of this ring is very low. A secondary winding is placed on a form that supports it centered as nearly as possible on the zero field ring. Any inaccuracies in placement of the coil or subsequent slight displacement will have nearly negligible effect on the flux enclosed and consequently upon the mutual inductance.

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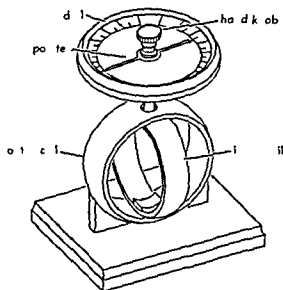


Fig 1 Schematic drawing of Ayrton and Perry inductometer

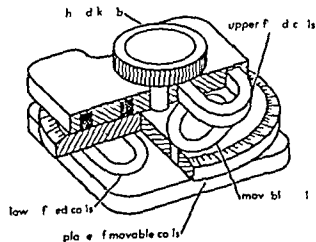


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[H 50]

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development of budget estimates. A budget must originate with the individual supervisor who is responsible for controlling expenditures at a particular level. Thus a plant operating budget reflecting forward estimates of departmental costs and expenses must stem from the department manager or foreman. Guidance is furnished by management but the frequently used procedure wherein budgets are created and imposed from above falls short of its prime purpose to achieve effective control.

Budgets in their form and content are normally designed to follow the accounting classifications in use for accurate comparisons to actual performance.

An overall budget for a divisionalized multi-plant manufacturing company will consist of many segments derived from many sources within the business, culminating in final budgeted income and balance sheet statements comparable to those normally supplied to top management.

An integrated budget control includes objectives, a formal statement of planned goals for one- and five-year or longer forward periods, budgets in the form of statements of proposed income and expenses and financial condition detailed by months for a one-year forward period, and in more general form for the longer period, all designed to achieve the stated objectives and performance reports that compare actual results with budget figures together with explanations of variances.

Detailed budgets at the operating levels and the integration of the same with high level objectives and overall budget program provide essential techniques for sound top management action. [See INDUSTRIAL ENGINEERING] [J P R]

Industrial engineering

As defined by the American Institute of Industrial Engineer, Industrial Engineering is concerned with the designing, improvement and installation of integrated systems of men, materials and equipment, drawing upon specialized knowledge and skill in the mathematical, physical and social sciences together with the principle and method of engineering analysis and design to specify, predict and evaluate the results to be obtained from such systems. Industrial engineering applications are to be found in offices, stores, hospitals, restaurants, hotels and on farms. Most industrial engineering activities are in manufacturing concerns.

Functions of industrial engineering. Two major functions of the industrial engineering department are analysis and improvement of method and the measurement and reduction of cost.

Methods improvement. The most economical method of performing an activity is developed and standardized. Then the operator is trained to perform the job in the specified method. Finally the work is measured and a time standard established. The process of making a part or doing a piece of work is studied before a specific operation is analyzed. When warranted a study of worker motion may be made to find the best manual method of per-

forming the task. A study of system and procedures, layout of equipment, method of handling material and flow of work are often part of such methods improvement.

Traditionally an operator's method and the equipment he uses were studied after a product had been designed and put into production. Today the economy of manufacture is being considered in the early stages of the design of a product and the development of its manufacturing method. Design of a product can materially affect the number of parts the product will have and the number and kind of operations required to manufacture it. Although motion and time study of work already in production produces large annual savings, even greater savings are possible by bringing the industrial engineer into the picture at the outset.

Some companies have methods laboratories in which experimental production lines and work place mockups are constructed and tested. The full force of design engineer, product designer, industrial engineer and manufacturing group is brought to bear on each aspect of designing a product for greatest economy of manufacture as well as for appearance, safety of operation, serviceability and function.

Work measurement and labor cost control. Time study and administration of wage incentive for direct factory labor were originally the main functions of the industrial engineer. Work measurement and labor cost control are still his major activities. To control labor costs fully it is necessary to establish time standards for each factory operation and then, through records of output, determine how well each worker performs against the standard. Such a performance index may be determined for each worker by the day or by the week. In many plants the worker is paid a wage incentive based upon his performance (see WAGE INCENTIVES). The establishment of a labor standard is a major responsibility and one that only a competent and well-trained person can perform satisfactorily.

There are four methods for measuring work which are acceptable: the labor for wage incentive. The object of work measurement is to determine the time that a qualified operator should take to perform a task when working at a normal pace. This time standard, when converted into money value, is at times called a piece rate. In other cases the standard time value is used as the basis for an incentive wage payment plan.

Time study. Although time study data may be obtained by a motion picture camera, a time using machine tape or a dial or an electronic timer, the decimal minute stopwatch is most frequently used as the measuring device.

Elemental data. In department or plant work, similar but not identical operations are performed. Work element are defined as time values assigned to each of the elemental time values are established by time study or from motion time data.

Pre-determined motion time data. All manual work can be divided into fundamental and mo-

company was confronted daily with the decision whether to pour concrete. If the concrete were poured and 0.15 in. or more of rain fell in the subsequent 36-hour damage of \$5,000 would result. The cost of protecting the newly poured concrete from rain would be \$400. To minimize the total expense of a series of such repetitive decisions (optimization of the operation) it follows from the principle of the calculated risk that protective measures should be taken only when $P > C/L$, where P is the probability of 0.15 in. or more of rain within 36 hours, C is the cost of protective measures (\$400) and L is the contingent loss (\$5,000). For this particular case under the actual weather occurring during a season of operation the total expense (cost plus loss) would turn out to be \$85,000 if protective measures were taken \$72,800 if protective measures were taken every day regardless of anticipated weather \$32,600 if protective measures were taken only on days when there was a 50-50 chance of this amount of rain and \$94,400 if protective measures were taken only on days when the probability of the critical amount of rainfall exceeded 0.08 that is in ratio of \$400/\$5,000.

This approach can be generalized to include more complex decisions and relations have been developed by J. C. Thompson and C. W. Brier (1955) to measure the economic utility of weather information. In practice the formal methods are frequently used and the fundamental principle described here is handled in a qualitative manner by close collaboration between the meteorologist and the user of weather information.

The substantial economic significance of weather in problems of business and industry has been emphasized by a survey conducted by the U.S. Weather Bureau in which an attempt was made to assign monetary values to the saving or profits realized through applications of daily weather reports of forecasts, storm warnings and past weather record. The order of magnitude of the total for the United States was \$1,000,000,000 annually.

Some measure of the economic toll of severe or unusual weather conditions is provided by data assembled by the National Board of Fire Underwriter which indicated that claim totalling \$866,000,000 were paid as a result of 72 major hurricane, tornado, wind storm, hail storm and rain storm during the period from 1919 to 1947 inclusive. The loss represents inurance losses not total property damage and include only in those in which claims within in a single state exceeded \$1,000,000.

The economic benefit that could be achieved in a single industry, the petroleum industry, by only a moderate improvement in forecast of anticipated average temperature conditions is demonstrated in a chance have been analyzed with the result that potential reduction in tankage and inventory cost has been conservatively estimated to be approximately \$100,000,000 per year. These savings would be realized

by improvements in heating oil scheduling made possible through better estimate of expected space-heating requirements available from forecasts of anticipated temperature conditions.

As a result of the economic significance of the weather factor in a variety of industrial applications there exists in meteorology a specialized activity on the part of professional meteorologists to serve the specific needs which lie outside the general public responsibility of the U.S. Weather Bureau. This service is provided either by staff meteorologists employed by particular companies or by consultant meteorologists who work for several clients. Approximately 9% of the more than 7,000 professional meteorologists in the United States are engaged in some facet of industrial meteorology. A substantial number of these are employed by commercial airlines where the need for specialized weather information is vital for safe and efficient operations (see AFRONAUTICAL METEOROLOGY). Gas and electric utility load estimates, highway and street maintenance, outdoor construction work, marine transportation, retail merchandizing and advertising, flood control, design, air pollution, building and plant design, atmospheric corrosion, agricultural planning and production scheduling and air conditioning and heating design are but a few of the activities in which the industrial meteorologist has found a demand for his service.

Annual conference on industrial meteorology are sponsored by the Committee on Industrial Meteorology of the American Meteorological Society. That society has established a program for the certification of consulting meteorologists who meet rigorous standards of knowledge, experience and adherence to high standards of ethical practice.

[T. F. M.]

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Industrial microbiology

The study, utilization and control of the micro-organisms capable of economically producing desirable substances or changes in substances.

Industrial fermentation criteria. M. J. Morgan. Some technical and industrially important microorganisms for carrying out fermentation processes. They should be able to grow rapidly and at a suitable rate and to be cultivated easily in large quantities. They should be able to carry out the fermentation under comparatively simple and well-known modifications of environmental conditions. They should maintain physiological activity under the conditions and produce economically acceptable yield. Also call it microbial growth method.

types a d gasoline and d e l engines Liquid petroleum gas h s recently been introduced a a f e l in the field C n e o k t r e a i l a b l e f o r e x i s t i n g e q u i p m e n t a n d s o m e m a n u f a c t u r e r s o f f e r t r u c k s s o - p o w e r e d a o r i g i n a l e q u i p m e n t D r e c t c u r r e n t r q u i r e d f o r c h a r g i n g s t o r a g e b a t t e r i e s s p r o v i d e d b y m o t o r g n e r a t o r s e t s o b y m e t a l d i k r v a c u u m t b e r e c t i f i e r s (s e e S T O R A G E B A T T E R Y)

E l e c t r i c t r u c k s p r e d o m i n a t e f o r o p e r a t i o n s i n c o n f i n e d l o c a t i o n s a d w h e r e f o o d s t u f f s m i g h t b e c o n s i d e r e d p o i s o n o u s b y e x h a u s t f m e s O n o p e n l o a d i n g p l a t f o r m a n d i n y a r d s i n t e r n a l c o m b i n e g e s e m p l o y e d f o r p o w e r g e n d u t i l t r u c k s

P o w e r e d n o l f t p l a t f o r m t r u c k s w i t h s t r a i g h t a n d d e p f a m e h a l l o n g b e e s t a n d a r d h a n d l i n g

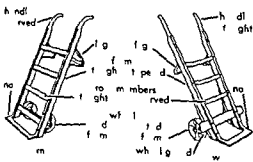


Fig 1 Two basic types of tow-wheel hand truck

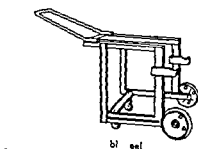
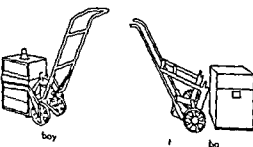


Fig 2 Low lift hand truck



Fig 3 Power driven lift platform trucks

e q u i p m e n t R e l a t i v e l y n e w a r e p e r m n e l a n d b u r d e n c a r r i e r s f o r t r a n s p o r t i n g m e n s e n g e r s w a t c h m e n m a l b l u e p r i n t s a s w e l l a s m a t e r i a l b e t w e e n f u i l d i n g s a n d i n p l a n t a r e a s c o v e r i n g c o n s i d e r a b l e g r o u n d S h o p t r a t o r s a r e u s e d e x t e n s i v e l y f o r m i s c e l l a n e o u s t o w i n g j o b s i n p l a n t a n d w a r e h o u s e s (F i g 3) A n e l e c t r i c a l l y c o n t r o l l e d t r a c t o r w a s i n t r o d u c e d r e c e n t l y i t i s d r e c t e d b y r a d i o o r l v w i e s w h i c h a r e o v e r h e a d o r e n c e a l e d i n t h e f l o o r

Unit load principle The unit load principle is a material handling underlies the skid platform and the pallet fork lift method of operation. Both methods involve especially the latter has a revolutionized handling techniques handling equipment and equipment of equipment so that they too can accommodate unit loads

A unit load is not necessarily composed of articles which are trapped glued or otherwise unitized by means of binding material. It can be made up of any assortment of articles which are accumulated and then handled with unit breaking blocks (Fig 4). Loads of this type were developed originally to be carried on skids or pallets but the trend is to make them up so that they can be handled by special devices which limit the need for any accessory supporting equipment. The unit load principle has been extended as evidenced by the increasing use of larger containers and over-the-road trucks and trailers which are treated as unit load in piggy back rail and marine shipping

Skids are constructed in three basic types: (1) live skids with fixed and swivel casters which are too likely for the general purpose; (2) emble skids with two fixed legs at the front and a pair of rigid casters at the rear and made movable by means of a jack and (3) dead skids having either two solid runners or four metal legs (Fig 5). All wooden dead skids and those made of hardwood platforms with metal edges and metal legs are convenient; others are made of metal such as steel or aluminum and have special superstructure

Pallets differ from skids in that they are separated by two or more lengthwise members called stringers which in some constructions are placed by blocks. The National Wooden Pallet Manufacturers Association has prepared and is used specifications for lumber pallets and other pallets. Different construction are called by descriptive names (Fig 6). For example those with double wings to permit the use of long bars are the tevedore type. The two most common sizes of pallets are 30 by 40 and 40 by 48 inches. Both can be carried as a trolley or as a cart. The U.S. Navy has standardized the latter.

If a pallet is to be used with a low lift truck the bottom deckboard must be spaced that openings are left near both ends so that the rollers in the fork arm of the truck can drop to the floor when the pallet is being elevated. Pallets so constructed are called non-reversible pallets (Fig 6).

mal and plant, is receiving increased attention and will probably equal or surpass production for human consumption and therapy as well as the production of industrial chemical. *S. C. DISTILLED PAPITS FERMENTATION ITACONIC ACID ITATAP TAPIC ACID KOJIC ACID MALT BEVERAGE PETRO-LEUM MICROBIOLOGY YEAST YEAST INDUSTRIAL* [R.H.H.]






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Industrial trucks

Manually propelled or powered carriers for transporting materials over level or slightly inclined or declined running surface. Some industrial trucks can lift and lower their loads and others can also tilt them. In any event all such trucks maintain contact with the running surface over which they operate and, except when towed by a chain conveyor, follow variable paths of travel as distinct from conveying machines or monorails (see MATERIALS HANDLING MACHINES).

Running gear. The means employed to support a truck and its load and to provide rolling friction contact with the running surface is the running gear. Factors in the selection of running gear include load capacity, operating conditions, travel surface, kind of material to be handled, protection of load and machine, economy and, in the case of hand truck, ease of manipulation and reduction of operator fatigue.

Basic types of industrial hand trucks

| Type | Description | Capacity | Range |
|--|---|--|---|
|  Pry | Levers with long, wooden handles, short tool noses and two wheels at the fulcrum. Used only on pairs for moving and setting crates and similar heavy articles as in freight cars. | Up to 600 lb each | Very short distances |
|  Dolly | Light frame, especially adapted carriers mounted on rollers or casters. Used for moving furniture, milk cans, paper rolls and many other intended uses. | From few lbs up to 50 lbs for the majority | A few feet |
|  Wheel truck | Normally constructed of wood and tool but also in aluminum and magnesium. Steady and was a good model for general purpose but many special purpose types are available for larger tonnage. | Normally 100-600 lb for the majority | 1 ft to 10 ft |
|  Multiwheel platform | Trucks with flat platform mounted on various combinations of 3 (on tall) 4 or 6 rigid and swivel casters. Addition of tilting and side gates and platform to accommodate various types of these trucks. | Normally 100-2000 lb for the majority | Weights and constant factors but normally within a few feet |
|  Special | A wide range of trucks with special protrusions and running gear for special purposes for special and heavy metal frames for special glass, etc. for many parts and to be adapted to accommodate the truck to the form and truck items. | Same as the wheel platform | Same as the wheel platform |

Rollers used in dollies are of solid or tubular steel, with antifriction bearings. Rigid and swivel casters are used with dollies and with hand and powered trucks. Swivels differ from rigid types in having offset wheels and special thrust and other bearings to facilitate turning. Steel solid rubber semipneumatic and other wheels fitted with plain or antifriction bearing are designed to meet specific requirements. Industrial wheels for heavy duty and special automotive type wheels in a wide selection of tire treads are used with powered trucks and tractors.

Hand trucks. Many industrial trucks are hand propelled by pushing or pulling. Some can be attached to a chain conveyor. Others are trailer equipped with couplings and can be hauled singly or in trains as described below. Basic types and their distinctive features are shown in the table. Two-wheel hand trucks are classified broadly as eastern and western (Fig. 1). Multiwheel hand trucks are produced in many models but platform types continue to be the most widely used in industry and distribution. Stake end and side gates, solid panels and other superstructures add versatility to the basic machines. Low lift types elevate their loads sufficiently to clear the running surface (Fig. 2).

Powered trucks. Development of compact, high capacity storage batteries and small internal combustion engines made possible self-powered industrial trucks. They have been responsible for extending the scope and increasing the efficiency of materials handling operations. Sources of power include storage batteries, lead acid and nickel-iron-alkali.

types and gasoline and diesel engines. Liquid petroleum gas has recently been introduced in the form of the Conquest which is available for existing equipment, and some manufacturers offer trucks equipped with a original equipment. Direct current is used for charging storage batteries provided by motor generator sets or by metal dielectric vacuum tube rectifier (see STORAGE BATTERY).

Electric trucks provide for operation in confined locations and where fumes might be detrimental by the use of fumes. On pen loading platform and in yards internal-combustion engines are employed for power, and all trucks equipped with platform trucks with straight and drop frames have long been standard handling

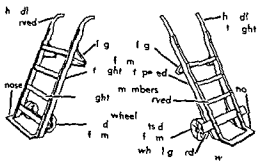


Fig 1 Two types of tow trucks

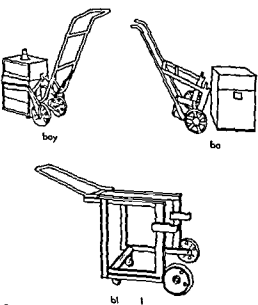


Fig 2 Lifting trucks



Fig 3 Power lifting trucks

equipment. Relatively few are personnel and for the arm's for transporting messengers, watchmen, mail, blueprints, as well as material between buildings and in plant areas covering considerable ground. Shop trolleys are used extensively for miscellaneous towing jobs in plants and warehouses (Fig 3). An electrically controlled tractor was introduced recently, it is directed by radio or by wires which are overhead or concealed in the floor.

Unit load principle. The unit load principle of material handling underlies the skid platform and the platform methods of operation. Both methods make use of the latter have revolutionized handling technique, handling equipment and equipment of equipment so that they too can accommodate unit loads.

A unit load is not necessarily composed of articles which are strapped, glued, or otherwise unitized by means of binding materials. It can be made up of any assortment of a article which are assembled and then handled without breaking bulk (Fig 4). Load lifting systems were developed originally to be carried on skids or pallets, but the trend is to make them up so that they can be handled by special devices which eliminate the need for a temporary supporting equipment. The unit load principle has been extended as evidenced by the increasing use of larger containers and the use of trucks and trailers which are treated as unit loads in packaging and marine shipping.

Skids are constructed in three basic types: (1) the skid with fixed and swivel casters which are usually fitted with rings or pins; (2) the skids with two fixed legs at the front and a pair of rigid casters at the rear and made mobile by means of a jack; and (3) the skids having either two solid runners or four metal legs (Fig 5). All wooden skids and those made of hardwood platform with metal edges and metal legs are not only other arm made of metal, chassis steel, aluminum and have special upstructure.

Pallet design. Pallets are made of two decks of fastenings by two members called string which are in some construction are replaced by block. The National Wooden Pallet Manufacturers Association has specified and used the following dimensions for pallets, and their components. Different construction is called by different names (Fig 6). For example those with double width to permit the use of string bars are the standard type. The two most commonly used sizes of pallets are 30 by 40; a 40 by 48.

Both can be carried advantageously in one or the other directions and are used for refrigerated cargo. The U.S. Navy has standardized the pallet size. If a pallet is to be used with a lifting truck, the bottom deckboard must be placed that openings 1 ft in diameter both ends so that the rollers in the fork arms of the truck can drop to the floor when the pallet being elevated. Pallets so constructed are called non-reversible pallets (Fig 6).

mal and plant is receiving increased attention and will probably equal or surpass production for human consumption and therapy as well as the production of industrial chemicals See DISTILLED SPIRITS FERMENTATION ITACONIC ACID ITATARIC ACID KOJIC ACID MALT BEVERAGE PETROLEUM MICROBIOLOGY YEAST YEAST INDUSTRIAL [R H II]

Bibliography S C Prescott and C G Dunn *Industrial Microbiology* 2d ed 1949 L A Underkoffler and R J Hickey (eds) *Industrial Fermentation* 1954

Industrial trucks

Manually propelled or powered carriers for transporting materials over level or slightly inclined or declined running surfaces Some industrial trucks can lift and lower their loads and others can also tier them In any event all such trucks maintain contact with the running surface over which they operate and except when towed by a chain conveyor follow variable paths of travel as distinct from conveying machines or monorails (see MATERIALS HANDLING MACHINES)






Running gear The means employed to support a truck and its load and to provide rolling friction contact with the running surface is the running gear Factors in the selection of running gear include load capacity operating conditions travel surface kind of material to be handled protection of load and machine economy and in the case of hand trucks ease of manipulation and reduction of operator fatigue

Rollers used in dollies are of solid or tubular steel with antifriction bearings Rigid and swivel casters are used with dollies and with hand and powered trucks Swivels differ from rigid types in having offset wheels and special thrust and other bearings to facilitate turning Steel solid rubber semipneumatic and other wheels fitted with plain or antifriction bearings are designed to meet specific requirements Industrial wheels for heavier duty and special automotive type wheels in a wide selection of tire treads are used with powered trucks and tractors

Hand trucks Many industrial trucks are hand propelled by pushing or pulling Some can be attached to a chain conveyor Others are trailers equipped with coupling and can be hauled singly or in trains as described below Basic types and their distinctive features are shown in the table Two-wheel hand trucks are classified broadly as eastern and western (Fig 1) Multiwheel hand trucks are produced in many models but platform types continue to be the most widely used in industry and distribution Stakes end and side-gates solid panels and other superstructures add versatility to the basic machines Low lift types elevate their loads sufficiently to clear the running surface (Fig 2)

Powered trucks Development of compact high capacity storage batteries and small internal combustion engines made possible self powered industrial trucks They have been responsible for extending the scope and increasing the efficiency of materials handling operations Sources of power include storage batteries lead acid and nickel iron alkaline

Basic types of industrial hand trucks

| Type | Description | Capacity | Range |
|--|---|--|--|
| Pallet truck  | Lever bars with long wooden handles short steel noses and two wheels at the fulcrum Used singly or in pairs for moving and spotting crates and similar heavy articles as in freight cars | Up to 5000 lb each | Very short distances |
| Dolly  | Low platform or specially shaped carriers mounted on rollers or combinations of fixed and swivel casters Designated as furniture milk can paper roll and so on to indicate intended uses | From few pounds up to 80 tons for moving machinery | A few feet |
| 2 Wheel truck  | Normally constructed of wood and steel but available in aluminum and magnesium Stevedore and warehouse models are general purpose lifting machines special purpose types are available for egg crates drums or paper roll | Normally 100-500 lb but exceptional 1 to 100 lb | Up to 150 ft |
| Multiwheel platform  | Trucks with flat platforms mounted on numerous combinations of 3 (unstable) 4 or 6 rigid and swivel casters Attached to stakes side- and end-gates solid panels and similar accessories increase the versatility of these trucks | Normally 1500-5000 lb for one man operation | Weight is a limiting factor but normally within a few hundred feet |
| Special  | A wide variety of trucks with special structures and running gear Examples are box frames for spools and sheets of metal frames for plate glass shelves for small parts and tool shapes to accommodate larger stock textile beams and stock items | Same as multiwheel platform | Same as multiwheel platform |

Free-lift is a unit factor for the open
 The distance through which the forks
 are elevated before the mast starts to rise. Where
 the mast rises a load is borne by the load
 support of the free-lift spraddles.
 Attachment for a vehicle with high lift trucks are de-
 signed to handle a variety of products. Many
 attachments illuminate the need

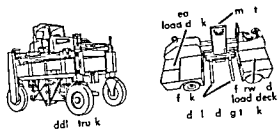


Fig 8 Hvy-duty truck

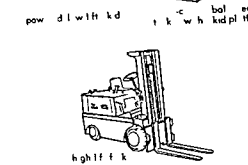
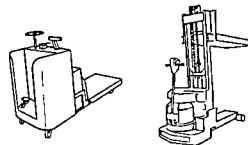
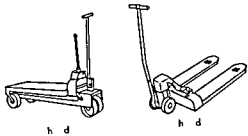


Fig 7 Hand-operated truck with power truck type truck

forklift trucks are designed for the open
 The distance through which the forks
 are elevated before the mast starts to rise. Where
 the mast rises a load is borne by the load
 support of the free-lift spraddles.
 Attachment for a vehicle with high lift trucks are de-
 signed to handle a variety of products. Many
 attachments illuminate the need

Trucks and trailers. Other trucks which are
 capable of handling loads include end loading
 (all all day try a d t add c r r r) and side
 loading type (Fig 8). The fork lift truck is a
 portable set down the road which usually
 carries a pallet or a trailer. These trucks are
 not the typical load. These trucks are
 tall they are up with fork lift truck. In contrast
 to the trucks can transport a load with
 the high lift truck. Further the machine
 can be equipped with cranes for handling
 long lengths of pipe, lumber and with rollers
 for paying out cable at the truck end of
 work.

Trailer trailer truck trailer truck
 son of the trailer (na w g g e) rail road
 has an advantage over the latter being able to
 follow a path of travel (Fig 9).
 In the latter case we deal with a 3- or 4-
 point contact concerning the number of sup-
 ports which they are used primarily for service
 of the goods platform and operation.
 Of the latter less weight the trailer has
 good stability (that is they will wobble the

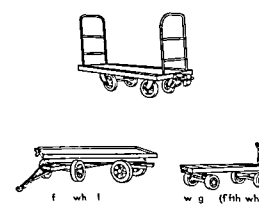
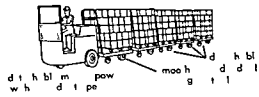


Fig 9 Equipment for non-pallet trucks

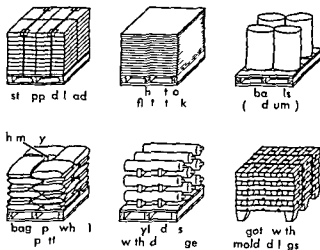


Fig 4 Loads assembled for handling in units



Fig 5 Skids for unit loads

Special pallets are those made of steel magnesium aluminum or even plastic expendable varieties (one way shippers) are made of fiberboard or light wooden elements in addition to those with custom made super structures there are self supporting types for handling crushable loads.

Structural differences between skids (Fig 5) with considerable clearance underneath and pallets (Fig 6) with stringers and bottom boards presenting obstructions account for the use of platforms with the former and of necessity fork equipped machines with the latter. The double deck feature of pallets makes them more suitable for multiple tiering than the runners or legs of skids which may damage the supporting surface of the lower load.

Low and high lift trucks. Skids and pallets are handled by self loading machines. These lift trucks pick up transport set down and in the case of the high lift type tier their loads without manual handling. Powered models evolved from prototype hand machines and because the first of the self propelled machines were led by the operator they were called walkies. The name persists even though most of them are now produced as rider trucks (Fig 7).

Low lift truck. hand and powered lift trucks tier their loads sufficiently to make them mobile. The elevating mechanism of hand types may be operated by pulling the handle down once or several times. Others have a lever or pedal operated hydraulic mechanism or a powered hydraulic system. Gasoline and electric models are available.

Noncounterbalanced high lift trucks evolved from hand propelled tacker. Fork equipped types are known as outrigger or straddle trucks because of the support which straddle the pallet. All varieties come with fixed or telescoping mast. The truck

are advantageous where space is at a premium. For example when piling vertically from aisles these machines operate in aisles 6 ft wide compared with 10 ft aisles required by counterbalanced trucks of equal capacity. Because they have no counterweight these machines are lighter than the counterbalanced types and hence are a boon to handling operations in old multi story buildings.

Counterbalanced lift trucks are constructed by extending the wheel base adding counterweight and removing the outriggers. They usually have forward and backward tilting masts. They are used where outriggers cannot function advantageously but they are longer than their noncounterbalanced counterparts.

Forklift trucks. Conventional fork trucks are made with any desired source of power the selection depending upon the service for which the truck is intended. Elevation of the forks forward and backward tilt of the mast and the power for actuating attachments is provided by the hydraulic system. This consists of a pump to draw oil from a reservoir and force it through control valves which are manipulated by hand levers selected by the machine operator into piston actuators.

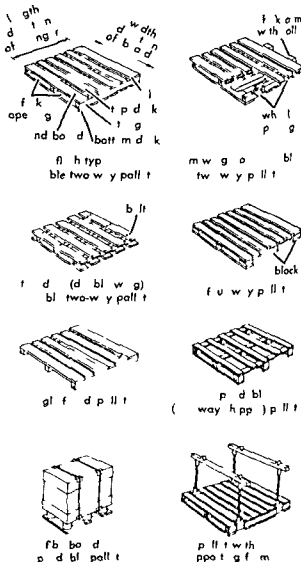


Fig 6 Standard special pallets

path established by the tractor) those with 4-wheel steer are rated as having excellent trailability but are difficult to maneuver manually and those with fifth wheel (wagon) steering are effective with heavy loads. They are offered in a wide variety of constructions which makes it possible to select one with proper characteristics to meet given requirements.

Each type of industrial truck is used to the best advantage when carrying the particular load for which it is intended. Several types may be found working singly or as teams. For example, palletized loads may be transported on tractor-trailer trains and then distributed and tiered by forklift trucks.

[D O U]

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Inert gases

The inert gases listed in the table constitute group 0 of the periodic table of the elements. They are also called the noble or the rare gases although argon is not actually rare and helium is not rare in the United States.

All these gases occur to some extent in the earth's atmosphere but the concentrations of all but argon are exceedingly low. Argon is plentiful constituting almost 1% of the air.

All isotopes of radon are radioactive, the longest lived having a half life of about 4 days. Each of the other inert gases has at least two stable (nonradioactive) isotopes in addition to one or more radioactive isotopes.

All the gases are colorless, odorless, and tasteless. They are all slightly soluble in water, the solubility increasing with increasing molecular weight. They can be liquefied at low temperatures, the boiling point being proportional to the atomic weight. All but helium can be solidified by reducing the temperature sufficiently, and helium can be solidified at about 1 K by applying an external pressure of 25 atm or more.

The atoms of the inert gases are characterized by the fact that in each of them the outer shell of electrons is filled. Therefore, none of the elements forms chemical compounds in the ordinary sense of the word, although they do form some weakly bonded clathrates and a few unstable diatomic

molecules and ions. Under ordinary conditions, molecules of the inert gases are monatomic.

All the inert gases except helium and radon are produced in concentrated form by the liquefaction and distillation of air, followed by special purification processes. Helium is obtained from certain natural gases containing 1% or more helium. Radon is obtained by collecting the gas called radium emanation given off in the radioactive decay of radium. See ARGON, ATMOSPHERIC GASES, PRODUCTION OF HELIUM, KRYPTON, NEON, PERIODIC TABLE, RADON, XENON. [C O C]

Inertia

That property of matter which manifests itself as resistance to any change in the motion of a body. Thus, when no external force is acting, a body at rest remains at rest and a body in motion continues moving in a straight line with a uniform speed (Newton's first law of motion). The mass of a body is a measure of its inertia. See MASS. [L V]

Inertia of energy

The principle of inertia of energy states that the inertial properties of matter determine and are determined by its total energy content. If E is the total energy content and m_0 the rest mass of a piece of matter, c being the speed of light, the mass-energy relation is $E = mc^2$. This formula was proposed on general grounds by H. Poincaré in 1900 and was deduced from the special theory of relativity by Albert Einstein in 1905.

If the mass of a body changes by an amount Δm , the corresponding energy change is $\Delta E = c^2 \Delta m$. The existence of disintegration processes in atomic nuclei has made it possible to test this formula with great accuracy. Energy released from nuclear reactions provides the power source in nuclear reactors as well as the principal energy source in the sun and other stars. The radiation emitted from the sun is equivalent to a loss of mass of about 4,000,000 tons/sec.

The statement that the rest mass of matter is determined by its total energy content is not a peculiar feature of a simple test since there exists no independent measure of the latter quantity. The validity of the general principle was adopted by Einstein as a cornerstone of his theory of gravitation. According to this theory, the gravitational properties of matter are determined by the distribution of energy in the universe. Matter and energy are viewed as interchangeable terms, all forms of energy being subject to gravitational action. Physical predictions made by Einstein on the basis of this principle are: (1) light passing near a star should be deflected by the gravitational field of the star and (2) light emitted from a massive star should lose energy in escaping from the star and consequently should appear to be slightly reddened with respect to a terrestrial source (gravitational red shift). Both the effects have been subjected repeatedly to physical tests, results favor Einstein's predictions. See EINSTEIN, SHIFT, MASS, RELATIVITY. [F L III]

The inert gases

| Name | Symbol | At. m. number | At. weight |
|---------|--------|---------------|------------|
| Helium | He | | 4.003 |
| Neon | Ne | 10 | 20.183 |
| Argon | Ar | 18 | 39.944 |
| Krypton | Kr | 36 | 83.80 |
| Xenon | Xe | 54 | 131.30 |
| Radon | Rn | 86 | 2 |

Infant diarrhea

A m p r t t y m p t o m p r p e c e d u d s a
a u t p e c f i d a e n m e d l i t e r t u r e B a b i
c m m l y e x h i b i t d r h b t e t n f u d n d
b l o o d h m l l c n b e f a t a l T a t m e t t e s
c o t l f t h e s e l e s w i t h p l a e m e t w h l t h
c a e o f t h d r r h e g h t S t o l a n m e
o r a t r y g r a d o t a m u u B l o o d
p g e t p f i n t r t h a s b t e r l r
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c d a e p d c i g u n d e c t o d a t
t O t h e r e l d f o o d e t t y r
l l g y n d f o o d p g u h b y o t m
a t d m l k E p d e m c d r h a f i t h e w b
t h d e s c r i p t t e r m f a e r u i t a t t h e
m l d y w h h w d e s p e d h p t a l n u r
S A e b i i s B i l l a r y D y s e n t e r y B A C T E R I
L O G Y M E I C A L F O O D O I S O I C B A C T E R I A L V I R
L L N C E V I R U S [P L B]

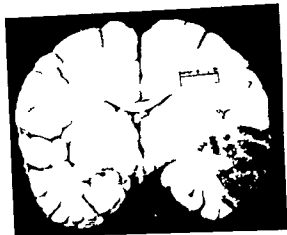


Fig 2 G p h t o g p h o f a s e c t o f b h w
g w d g e s h p d f t T h l d f o m a
t h m b f t h b h f t h m d d l e
b l t r y S e d r y h m r r h g h o r r d i t
t h f c t d t (I)

Infarction

A p r s f l a r b i t c t u e l t g a
r g o f c r c l l d i n f a c t T h u l
s e o c l u o f a r t e r y e b y a t h r m
b m b o l t h d l p m e t d e p e d t g r t
t t n t h e l l t a l c l t n I f t h e a t o m
t u c b l o o d p p l y i d q u t f t h e l s
t h l u r c f b l o d p p l y t t h r e g n
i f c t r e s l t
F l l w g a t a l p r i o d f h y p e m t h e
i f r t d g b e c m e p a l e B a e f t h e
b h g g m e t f t h e l y t m
f t f t h e p l e k d y d l g r e l l y
w e d g h p d w t h t h b f t h w d g t t h e
p e p h r y a d t h e p e x t w d t h e p o i n t f a s
l b t r u t S E B O L L S T H R O M O S
W i t h o c l f a n a r t e r y t h t g c o l l a t
r l l t w l l t m p t t b r i g m b l o o d
t h e g D e n d g t h e t t f t h p c
e s t h e f t e d w l l b e d p l T h
p o c e s w t h t h o g a l d T h o f

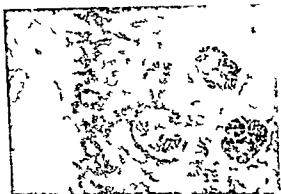


Fig 3 L w p w w f i h d g f l f c t
T h m t f g l m l d t h g h t f t h
d d l t b l e t l b s e i t h f r c t d
g (I) O t h l f t l l t l y b t t p e
r v d g l m r u l d t b l l b A
f f i m m t r y l l (C) p i g t h d d
d l t l y b t t p r v d t

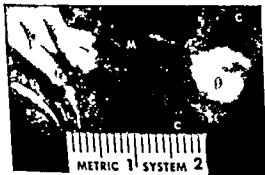


Fig 1 M g f i d g r o p h t o g p h f w d g e
s h p e d f r c t f t h k d y (I) T h l r (C)
m e d l r y p y m i d (M) d l p l (P) b
l l y s e

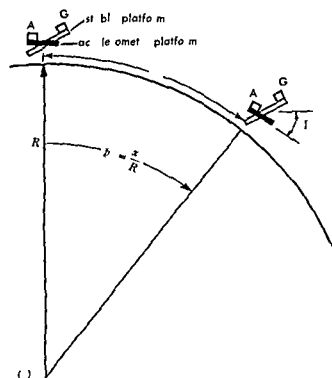
t h k d y n d h e r t e p l e w h e t h o e f t h e
p l d l n g u l l y r d W i t h d e t h f t h e
t u s t h e g d d l t t n f t h n e a r b y
l a d a r y h m r r h a g m y o c c u r
T h t t h f l e c t e d e a u d r g c a g
l t e c o d d e s T h t t d t h i
f c t e d g b m i f l a m e d S o o n f i b o b l t
t t y d g n i z a t n b g i E t a l l y t h
d a d t r p l d b y h r u k d e p e s e d

I f r t c m m l y o u r n t h e l g h r t
b r s p l e n d k d y T h e m m n c a e f
f t f t h e h r t s t h o m b o o f t h c o n r y
t r y s a l l y s e c d r y t r e r n c l e r i
I f r t f p r t f b w l w l e s l t m
d t h f t h i d d l n l s g e l t r v t n f
s f t h m g A s m i g h t b a m e d b e c a s e f
t h f q y f t h m b t h e i m e d r i g h t u

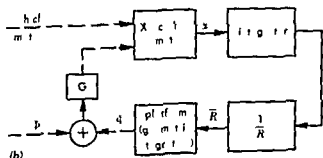
The curved earth Schuler tuned system (Fig 4) produces accurate navigation for trips lasting many hours or days while the flat system (Fig 3) becomes inaccurate in a short time.

Navigation errors Suppose for example that an accelerometer is in error by a constant value of one ten thousandth of g so that $\epsilon = 0.00322$ ft/sec². In Fig 3 the integrators turn continuously and the distance error grows as $ct^2/2$ so that after 1 hour the error (Fig 5a) is 4 miles and after 2 hours it is 16 miles. In Fig 4 the output of the integrator begins immediately to tilt the platform in a corrective direction and the final platform motion is an oscillation (Fig 5a) about a position one tenth of a milliradian (0.06°) from the true vertical with a resulting distance error between 0 and 0.8 mile after any length of time.

A drifting gyroscope tilts the stable platform at a constant rate and produces an error (Fig 5b) growing as t^3 for flat navigation (Fig 3) but growing only as t (on the average) for the Schuler tuned system (Fig 4). Thus after 1 hour a gyro drift of 1° /day (one ten thousandth of the earth's rate of spin) produces errors of 20 miles for flat

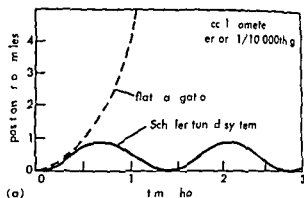


(a)

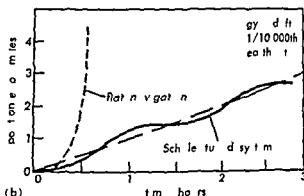


(b)

Fig 4 Schuler tuned system (a) Geometry on spherical earth (b) Computer configuration



(a)



(b)

Fig 5 Inertial navigation errors arising from (a) accelerometer error (b) gyro drift

navigation but only 1 mile for the Schuler tuned system. For long term navigation the statistical character of gyro drift actually leads to a position error growing approximately as the square root of t .

Errors in the navigation computer produce additional positional errors. Computer errors arise out of the complexities of unscrambling the mathematics of acceleration in spherical coordinates on a rotating earth and of accounting for the earth's slight nonsphericity and other geodetic and gravitational variations. See EARTH GEODESY.

Initial misalignment also produces an 84-min oscillation. Alignment may be performed optically using a known reference or by the gyrocompassing technique whereby the system is allowed to seek gravity (leveling) and the direction of the earth's spin axis.

Aided inertial systems When means are available the accuracy of an inertial system may be improved in two ways: (1) by check point corrections and (2) by auxiliary velocity direction.

Check points may be introduced by discrete resetting or continuous monitoring using radio radar or automatic star tracking equipment.

Independent velocity data may be obtained from Pitot tube or Doppler radar and serve to damp the 84-min oscillation. This method requires caution, however, because errors in velocity data produce navigation error.

[RHC]

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Infant diarrhea

An mp rta t ympt m pu pely d ed as n
ute pecifi d ea nmd alit rat r Bab e
comm ly e h b t d hea b t ext i e flu d a d
blood chemic ll s an be fat l Tr tment t s
o tr l f these l s w th repla m nt whle the
e f the d a he s o ht Stool a num r
u o w tery g e a d e ta muc s Blo d
pu ogg ta pecifi t rit u h s b a t r i a l o
ameb dy ent ry D r r h e f i n d e t e s i f c t n
The i e v d n e t l a t i a l c a t e d
th t r m l n t e s t l b a c t r i a c a n b e c m p a t h o g
e d e p r o d i n g u d e r t n o n d
u O t h e r a s c l d f d e n t i t y o
ll r g y a n d f o o d p i n g u c h b y n t m
a t e d m l k E p d e m d a h a f t h n w b o r
the d e p t e r m f r e t i n t h n
m l a d y w h l w i d p e a d h p t a l n r e e
S e A M E B I S S B A C I L L A R Y D Y S E T E R Y B A C T E R I
O L O G Y M E D I C A L F O O D P O I S O I G B A C T E R I A L V I R
U L E C V I R U S [P L B]

Infarction

A p r o c s f c u l o b t r u c t r s u l t a g i n
r e g o f e c i l l d a n f t T h u l
l o n f r t y o b a t h m
b s m b o l u s t h d l o p m e t d p e n d t a g r t
e x t e t o n t h l l t e l c c l t n l f t h s t o m
a t h b l o o d p p l y i a d q t f t h e s l
t h e l s o f b l o o d p p l y t t h e g o
f t e l t
F l l w g t l p r o d f h y p e m i t h
i f a t e d r e g n b e c m s p a l e B e c u e o f t h
b a h g a n g m t o f t h e u l a y t e m
f t o f t h p l k d e y a n d l g a e u l l y
e d g e h p e d w t h t h b f i b w d g e a t t h
p h e r y d t h a p e x t w r d t h p n t f
l b i t t S E t r o l l s T h r o b o s i s
W t h l n f n t y t h e s t g l l t
e a l r l a t i n w l l a t t e m p t o b n g m b l d
t h r e g n D e p n d n g n t h t i f t i s p
e s t h e f r i d e a w l l b e d p l e T h r
p o c e s s e s w t h t h g l e d T h



Fig 1 M g f i d g p h t o g p h f w d g e h p e d l f r c t f t h k d e y (1) T h l r t (C) m e d f l r y p y m d (M) d l p e l (P) b l e l y s e

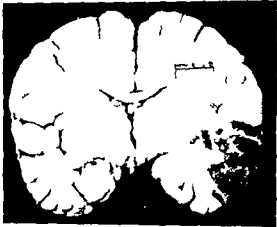


Fig 2 G p h t o g p h f t f b n h w i g w d g e h p d f c t T h s l t e d f m t h m b f t h e b h o f t h m d d l e e b l r t r y S e d r y h m h g e h c d i t t h e f c t d t (1)

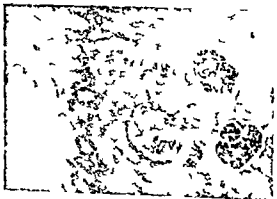


Fig 3 L w p w e w f t h e d g f r l f c t T h m t f g l m l d t h g h t f t h d d l t b f s t i l l b t h f c t d g (1) O t h l f r f l t l y b t t p e r v d g l m l d t b u l l b A z e f f l m m t r y l l (C) p o t i g t h d d d l t l y b t t p r v d t

t h k d e y a d h t e p a l w h e a s t h o e o f t h e
p l e a d l r e u a l l y e d W t h d t h o f t h
t u m t h o n n d d l t a t i n o f t h n e b y
e l a s e c d y h m o r h g m a y o c r
T h e t s u e i n t h e f l e c t d e a u d r g c g
l t o a d d s T h t s o u d t h m
f c t e d r g o b m s f l a m e d S o n f i b l a t
a t i t y a d g a n z a t o b g E e t l l y t h
d t t u e i e p l e d b y s h a n k e d p r e d
r
i f f t m m n l y c u n t h l g h e a r t
b s p l e n a d k d n e y T h e c m m u e o f
i f a t s f t h h r t t h r m b o s f t h o n a r y
r t r y u a l l y s e d r y t a t s c l e s
i f i n f a p r t o f b o w l w i l l r e s u l t n
d a t h f t h d i d a l u l e s u r g a l t e r v e n t n
f r t h m g A s m i g h t b a s u m e d b e c a u s e
o f t h q n y o f t h m b i t h a d g h t u

ricle embolization to the lungs is a rather frequent occurrence. However because of the collateral blood supply of the lungs infarction follows only when there is some interference with the circulation such as chronic pulmonary venous congestion. An extensive collateral circulation also exists in the liver hence the rarity of infarcts in this organ. See CIRCULATION DISORDERS.

[R A V]

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Infection

A term considered by some to mean the entrance, growth and multiplication of a microorganism (pathogen) in the body of a host resulting in the establishment of a disease process. Others define infection as the presence of microorganisms in host tissues whether or not it evolves into detectable pathologic effects. The host may be a bacterium, plant, animal or human being and the infecting agent may be viral, rickettsial, bacterial, fungal or protozoan.

A differentiation is made between infection and infestation. Infestation is the invasion of a host by higher organisms such as parasitic worms. See BACTERIOLOGY MEDICAL EPIDEMIOLOGY INFECTIOUS LYTIC MYCOLOGY MEDICAL PARASITOLOGY MEDICAL PATHOGEN VIRUS [D N L]

Infection lytic

Infection of a bacterium by a bacteriophage with subsequent production of more phage particles and lysis or dissolution of the cell. The viruses responsible are commonly called virulent phages. Lytic infection is one of the two major bacteriophage-bacterium relationships, the other being lysogenic infection. See BACTERIA, LYSGENIC BACTERIOPHAGE, COLIPHAGE [P B C]

Infectious disease control

Since infection depends on factors in the host, the parasite and the environment, there are various means by which infectious disease control may be brought about. Immunization strengthens the defenses of the host, chemoprophylaxis is directed at the parasite, and quarantine and sanitary measures remove the parasite from the environment of susceptible people.

Immunization has been successful in controlling smallpox, diphtheria, tetanus and whooping cough and offers great promise in poliomyelitis. It protects the individuals immunized and when the number so protected has reached a high enough level it may prevent the outbreak of an epidemic. Chemotherapy is now used successfully in the treatment

of many infectious diseases and is therefore effective in controlling the secondary spread of the diseases. Chemoprophylaxis acts at an earlier stage; it may be defined as the use of drugs to prevent the development of infectious diseases. Persons exposed to tuberculosis for instance may take isoniazid with the objective of preventing the tubercle bacilli from becoming established.

Quarantine may be defined as such a limitation of freedom of movement of persons who have been exposed to a communicable disease that for a period of time equal to the incubation period of the disease they are unable to make effective contact with persons who have not been exposed. The term may also be used for less extreme degrees of isolation. Quarantine has been effective in countries such as Australia which are distant from other centers of population so that people arriving by sea will have had opportunity to develop during the voyage any infectious disease they may be incubating. Examination at the quarantine port will then be effective. Quarantine is likely to be less useful as air travel becomes more common.

The basic importance of sanitary measures in the control of infectious diseases is due to the fact that certain microorganisms that infect man are excreted in the feces by patients or carriers. If sewage disposal is inadequate, contamination of the water supply is likely. Preventive measures are concentrated both on the safe disposal of sewage and on the provision of clean water. The diseases that may be controlled by these measures include typhoid fever, dysentery, hookworm and infectious hepatitis. See EPIDEMIOLOGY [C W I]

Infectious disease transmission

The transmission of infectious diseases is accomplished in several ways.

1 There may be direct contact with an infected person. The venereal diseases are almost invariably and measles is commonly spread in this way. See GONORRHOEA, LYMPHOGRANULOMA VENEREUM, MEASLES, YAWS.

2 Certain diseases are spread by direct contact from lower animals to man, an example being undulant fever which may be transmitted directly from cattle, goats or swine (see BRUCELLOSIS). Animal ringworm is another disease in this class. See ZOONOSSES.

3 Milk-borne infectious diseases include typhoid fever, scarlet fever, summer diarrhoea and bovine tuberculosis. The cow infects the milk with bovine tubercle bacilli but in the other diseases listed the infection is from human source. The milk responsible is almost always raw in the pasteurization properly carried out can be relied on to kill pathogenic microorganisms. See MILK, SCARLET FEVER, TUBERCULOSIS, TYPHOID FEVER.

4 In the past there have been many epidemics of waterborne diseases. They include epidemic typhoid fever, holoerythroid enteritis and amebic dysentery. Although the elimination of the infective agent is not sufficient for

th wat upplies f la ge mmunit e i many
pat of the w ld S e WATER BORNE DISEASE.

5 Ga r e te su d e t th *Salmo lla* group
f rgan ms s a food borne d i e a e in certain
sta ces P rk and po lity are p r t ul rly lable
t b o t m ated and duck egg ha e been n
c m t d on e aloc as Am b d y nt ry
m be t a smited by o t m n ted eget ble
S e SALMONELLA

6 A m l i f e c t o i n that s p e d
n hospitals An u ge t p blem t th p e s e n t t m e
the pr ad f st phyllococci man y f th m an ti
b t e e s t t i h o s p i t l S e STAPHYLOCOCCUS

7 A r t l s wh h becom o t m i ated by n
t t with a p t n t are kn wn a f mites and the e
t t u r n m y e u f m t e b o r n n f e t n Am g
h l d e r e t h e s e c e r a b l e t r a f f i c n l b y
m a o f t o y s t h e r t m n a t e d o b j e c t s wh h
e r v m e n s f n d r t n t e t b e t w e n a a e
and a u c p t i b l e s o i l e d t h i n g b e d d g n d
d e g D e e s t r m t t e d n t h i w a i n c l u d
t e p t o c l f e c t o n s n d d p h t r i a S D I P H
T H E R I A S T R E o c c t s

8 I n s e c t v e t e t h m t i m p o t t m e n
f p e a d g e r t a d e a h a y e l l w f e v e
l e e p n g k n e s p l a g u n d t y p h u T i n t
l e d a e r e s p t e l y m q u i t o o s t e t e f l u e
f e a n d l e T h e s t a a n f e c t e d b u t t h e
h e s s i l y m a y a n e d a b y c t n a p a s t i e
e e l g r m a q u e d f r m n f c t e d m a t i l
h f e c e s S P C U E S L F P I G S I C K N E S
A F R I C A T Y P H U S F E V E R E D E M I C (F L E A B O R N E)

T Y P H U S F E R F I D E S I C (L O U E B O R N E)

Host parasite relationship The t a m s o f
d m a l s o b a t i d i e d a s a p o b l m t h o s t
p a a t e l t n h p T h e a d y n a m c b a l a c e
b e t w e e n t h e f l o r t f t h p a a t e t m l t p l y a n d
t h d f e f t h h t a g t i n s e c t E n v i r o
m n t a l f a t e r u h t e m p a t u r n d h m d t y
m f l u t h q l b r m b e t w e e n t h e t w o p r o t
t g n t t h f r t h e e e i s o f f a c t o c i a t e d
r e s p t i y w i t h t h e f a r t t h h t d t h
r n m t e d e e d

B t l p p l t T e t c i e l p o p u l t n
t h r m i r p a t e p o p u l a t m y b f a l y
t t t b i l g l e f f e c t s n t h e h t T h
r t m l e s n t h i s t g r v T h e v r u e f
n f s z a h w n m k e d n t a t n
t h y h b t l a g m i r f t a n w h h a r y
t h t t e d t h e f f e c t s a t e h t d
h h p t e c t n n n f s z a p i
d m m b e l y p r t i l l y p o t t e o n t a t
l l p t e c t n n t h T i r u f A i f
n z a f m p l w u n l k a y t h t h a d b
n u t l e r t e a t h o u g h t w a m
d n t h t l d p e o p l p o e s d a t b o d e s
h t i d t e d t h h d e n t e d t h e m r u
p e r i l

F r h t p p l t n T h e g e n f n
p l m d p e d l f t n t h h t p p
l T h g d t h t m p o r t a t b e c u
m n y m o o g n m a e l e c t n t h e a g e
e u p t h y n k m g o c o c a l m e g t s

m e l k e l y t a t t a c k y o u n g e r a g e g o u p a n d
t h e h a v e t h e f o r e b e e n e v e r a l e p i d e m i c s n a r m y
c a m p s i n w h c h n u n e o u y u n g r e c r t s w e r e l i
i g T h e f a c t r i c r o w d i n g i s a l o i m p t a n t i n
t h i s c a c e d i s i n f l u e n c e m a y b e s e n g a i n i n
t h e h i g h r a t f o c e r t a i n d a e i n s l u m o v e r
e r w d e d j a l a n d m e n t a l h p i t a l

E t r m e n t a l f a c t r s N u m e r o u e n i r m e n t a l
f a t r a c t n b t h t h b a c t e r i a l p e p l a t o n a n d
t h e h t p u l a t o n P r o n f c l a n w t r a n d
p o p e w a g e d p s l h e l e n t h e c h f a t o r
l e d i n g t o a e d c t i n f t e e n t i c d i e a q m
m a y c m m u n i s A r e s u l t o f o c l e d a n i t a r y
r e f o r m t y p h o d f e r i s n o w i t a l l u n k n o w n i n
m o d e r n c i t e s

H e d i m m u r y W h n a h o t i s i n f e c t e d h e m a y
r a c t s u c f l l y t o t h e p a r t e n d n d n g
p r o d u c a n t b o d e t h t n k e h m m m u n f r m e
t m e f r m f r i e a t t a c k f t h e p a r a s i t e A w e l l
a c n s d n g t h i m m u n i t y o f t h e s o d d u a l o n e
m a y a l o s t u d y h r d i m m u n i t y t h a t i t h e i m m u
n i t y s t a t u s o f t h p u l a t n a a w h l e I f t h e m
m u n i t y a q u i r e d t o a p a r t c u l a r p a r a t e i l t n
t h s s e c e p t i b l e s w l l t e d t o b e c n e a t r a t e d i n t h e
y o n g e r a g e g r o u p a d n e p d m i w i l l m o s t l y i n
v l e t h s c i o n i t h e p u l a t o n T h e c m m o n
l i d h o o d f e t u n u e l a m a l e a d c h k n
p r i l l s t r a t t h p o i n t O n t h e o t h e r h a n d t h e
i m m u n i t y n f s e z a s h t l e d a n d t h i d i a
a t t a k s a l l a g g u p s

T h e s h o l d d u y I f t h p r o p r t o f u p t
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g r o u p w l l d u t T h s t a n i m p t a n t f a t o r n
t h e c y c l a l l e h a t r e p i d e m i c D u r i n g t h e
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i n c a s e d t h e n d t i s b e c m a p p r i a t e
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N o n h u m a n h o s t s S o f r t h h t u d r o n
i d e t n h a b e n t h e h u m a n b u t t h e r e a e h a t
o t h e r t h n m n w h c h m a y u n d e n a t u r a l o n d
t o s h b o r a n n f e t i s a g e n t p t h n f o r
m a A n e p d m i o f p l a g u e i n m s a l w a y p r e
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b l d e t n d h e n t h a f f e c t o r r a t e b e c o m
h g h t t h i s h t l e d s e a s p i l l s o e r t m a
S E r i t m o l o g y [c w i t]

Infectious mononucleosis

A d a e f h l d a d p r t c l a r l y o f y o g
d u l t h a t e r i e d b y f e e a n d e l a r g e d l y m p h
o d t

T h e a g n t p r e m d b u t n o t p o e n t h e
v l l a r v i d c e o f x p r m e t l t r n m i o n
h a n t b e e n b t n e d

O e t o f t d e a l w a d n o s p e c i f i c w i t h
v a i b l e f e r a n d m a l e l a t e c e r v i c a l l y m p h
u d s a l a g n d s a b o u t 50% o f c a e t h
p l e l b e c a m e l r g e d T h d i e s l a t s
4 - 0 d y s o l n g r E p d e m e o m m o n n
i n t t t w h r y o g p e p l e

F a d g n t h h t p h l e a t b o d y t t
u f l T h t t b a s e d a n s p e f i c e r o l g

reaction present at high levels in patients with infectious mononucleosis. Total white blood cell count and differential blood count are also useful in diagnosis. See HETEROPHILE ANTIGEN [J L M]

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Infective dose 50

An important special case of the median effective dose is the dose of microorganisms required to cause infection in 50% of the experimental animals. This is known as the infective dose 50 ID₅₀ or the median infective dose. In former times it was the practice to try to measure the least amount of infective agent that was needed to produce a definite infection but this proved to be a very variable quantity. The median infective dose is a much more reproducible measure though it is still necessary to specify in detail certain conditions to be observed during the measurement of this quantity. For example the median infective dose varies widely according to the route of administration a dose that is ineffective by mouth may cause a high rate of infection when given intravenously. See EFFECTIVE DOSE 50 [CWH]

Infinity

The terms infinity and infinite have a variety of related meanings in mathematics. The adjective infinite means having an end so infinity may be used to refer to something having no end. To be more precise the mathematical domain of discourse must be limited.

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Suppose that two collections A and B of objects can be set into one to one correspondence—that is each object in A is paired with one and only one object in B and each object in B belongs to just one of these pairs. Then A and B are said to contain the same number of objects or have the same cardinal number. This is equivalent to the ordinary meaning of the same number obtained by counting when the collections A and B are finite and is taken as the definition of this phrase in the general case.

Now let A consist of all the positive integers and let B consist of the even integers. Then A and B have the same number of elements since each element of A can be paired with its double in B ; thus each element can be removed from an infinite collection without reducing the number of its elements. This property distinguishes infinite collections from finite ones and indicates that the statement the number of elements of a collection A is greater

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Consider next the number of subsets of a given collection A . For example let $A = \{a, b, c\}$ that is A consists of the three letters a , b and c . Then the sets $\{a\}$, $\{b\}$, $\{c\}$, $\{a, b\}$, $\{a, c\}$, $\{b, c\}$ are subsets of A . To the \emptyset for convenience can be adjoined the null set containing no elements and the $\{a, b, c\}$ itself. This makes a total of $8 = 2^3$ subsets. It is readily proved that a set A having a finite number n of elements has 2^n subsets. Thus the number of subsets of a finite set is always greater than the number of elements. By a different method the same property may be proved to hold also for infinite sets. Hence for every infinite number there is a greater number. In other words there exist infinitely many distinct infinities. Sets having the same number of elements as the collection of positive integers are called countably infinite and this is the smallest infinity.

Infinity in limits of functions The term infinity appears in mathematics in a different sense in connection with limits of functions. For example consider the function defined by $y = 1/x$. When x tends to 0 y approaches infinity and the expression may be written

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Precisely this means that for an arbitrary number $a > 0$ there exists a number $b > 0$ such that when $0 < x < b$ then $y > a$ and when $-b < x < 0$ then $y < -a$. This example indicates that it is sometimes useful to distinguish $+\infty$ and $-\infty$. The points $+\infty$ and $-\infty$ are pictured at the two ends of the y axis a line which has no ends in the proper sense in euclidean geometry.

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Other concepts Other types of infinity may be distinguished when properties other than the mere cardinal number of a set are being considered. For example a line and a plane contain the same number of points but when a continuity consideration is important the line is said to be made up of a single infinity of points whereas the plane has a double infinity or ω^2 points. Thus it can be there exist a one-to-one continuous correspondence be

twice the line and a subset of the plane but the re does not exist such a correspondence between the whole plane and the line or any part of it. As another example an infinitesimal may be ordered in different ways so as to have different cardinal numbers. *S. S. CALCULUS DIFFERENTIAL AND INTEGRAL.* [L.M.C.]

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Inflammation

A response to an insult due to an injurious stimulus. Usually the term is applied to cases in which a reflected or an altered structure of the tissue is injured. Although the emphasis is on the changes in the injured focus the state of the entire organ is affected. It is possible to modify a variable in order to obtain a desired duration and nature of the injury against and the specific site of injury even though the fundamental underlying reaction is the same regardless of the type of injury.

The functionally associated to this process is that of defense against injurious agents and a therapeutic effect associated with the process of repair. The cellular reaction of the injured tissue is a typical approximation of the whole reaction before the injury. Although inflammation and repair frequently but not necessarily occur together, they are often interrelated. The reaction with no modification of attempts in the body to prevent the inflammatory reaction process.

Usually a inflammation of a particular tissue occurs and is related to the addition of the whole root for the affected part. Thus inflammation of the liver is hepatitis, of the heart is myocarditis, of the lungs is pneumonia. The terms are further modified as to duration, intensity, character, and site. For example, acute hepatitis, chronic myocarditis, and bacterial pneumonia. By common usage the terms pneumonia, acute and chronic inflammation of the lungs, are usually used interchangeably with pneumonia.

Acute inflammation. The cardinal signs of inflammation are known as the four C's: color (redness), calor (heat), tumor (swelling), and dolor (pain). Late a fifth sign, functionally related to the first four, is added: crasis. These signs can be explained and amplified by observing on a small scale the following:

Immediately following injury the blood supply is increased and additional plasma is being added to the blood. This augmented blood flow to the tissue is the redness and heat of the tissue. The blood flow is slowed and the blood cells, leukocytes, which normally are in the axis of the blood vessel, are pushed to the margins of the vessel. At the same time the leukocytes are added to the blood flow and the white blood cells migrate to the wall of the vessel and become located at the site of the injury. The permeability of the capillary wall is altered, the walls are altered and the pores are enlarged.

As edema fluid. If the increase in permeability continues plasma proteins and the attached white blood cells along with some red blood corpuscles will pass into the extravascular spaces and cause pressure and exudate. The increase in extravascular fluid, whether edema or exudate, causes swelling and principally because of effects of pressure on nerve endings results in pain. As the blood flow slows and the blood becomes more viscous because of loss of fluid there is an increased tendency for clotting. This has an effect of helping to localize the inflammatory agent in many cases. The character of the exudate also depends on the nature of the injurious agent. When a stain is injected into the cavity, organisms, the exudate is often purulent, that is, it contains many polymorphonuclear leukocytes. The cells facilitate the destruction of the bacteria by engulfing them into their cytoplasm, a process termed phagocytosis. See PHAGOCYTOSIS.

Healing. This may occur by resolution of the exudate if death of tissue cells has not occurred. In this process the edema fluid is removed by the lymphatic system and large mononuclear white cells, phagocytes, remove waste matter and transport adjacent lymph nodes. If extensive necrosis of tissue cells has occurred healing must proceed either by the replacement of the lost cells by regeneration or by the development of granulation tissue and ultimately the formation of scar tissue. Granulation tissue is formed when buds of endothelial cells grow from adjacent capillaries and fibroblasts from the tissue migrate into the fibrous exudate thereby forming a network of pillars in a loose stroma of fibroblasts. The fibroblasts lay down collagen and the capillaries become diminished. Eventually there is almost complete replacement by dense scar tissue.

Chronic inflammation. If an injurious stimulus persists for months or years the cellular microscopical picture of acute inflammation is absent. There is little visible apparatus and few polymorphonuclear leukocytes. Instead the tissues have a predominance of large and small mononuclear cells and the reaction occurs in the fibrous connective tissue elements. A special type of chronic inflammation is termed granulomatous inflammation because of the tendency to form nodules composed of fibroblasts and large and small mononuclear cells. Occasionally in tuberculous disease the central portion of the granuloma may be a necrotic focus. This is situated in organisms may be in the tissue but not in many years. Abscesses are localized inflammatory containings pus that is necrotic tissue and white blood cells and usually they are located on a surface such as the skin, they may rupture and drain in a superficially thus relieving the pressure and permitting the growth of a carbuncle or an abscess. The known facts as to the reaction by multiple penicillin. This is a result of the fact that in some localities the body such as the back of the neck, tough fibrous tissue and extend and preponderantly to the skin surface into the

reaction present at high levels in patients with infectious mononucleosis. Total white blood cell count and differential blood count are also useful in diagnosis. See HETROPHIL ANTIGEN [J. L. M.]

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subcutaneous tissue. The inflammatory process extends to neighboring compartments and acts as if there were multiple adjacent abscesses. Abscesses located deep under a surface may continue to expand and destroy much of the organ.

Cellulitis. With some bacterial agents particularly streptococci there is no appreciable walling off of the original lesion and the infectious agent dissects along tissue planes. This is especially likely to occur in loose subcutaneous tissues. See STREPTOCOCCUS.

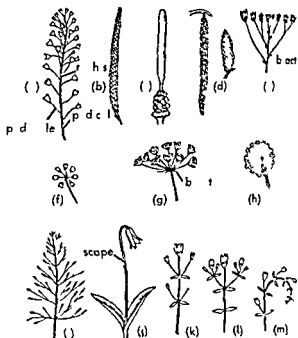
Systemic effects of inflammation. Many inflammations may give rise to no discernible generalized reactions. If the inflammation is severe there may be well recognized signs and symptoms. Fever and increased white blood cell count may be noted even with a localized abscess such as a carbuncle. Generalized abdominal pain may be present in appendicitis because of secondary inflammation of the lining of the abdominal cavity. Enlarged tender lymph nodes are frequently noted in association with a tonsillitis. Headache and double vision may be the first sign of a brain abscess. The systemic reaction will depend on location, severity, and character of the inflammatory process, and firm generalizations cannot be made. Individuals with certain hormonal disturbances such as diabetes or vitamin deficiencies such as in scurvy are apt to respond poorly to inflammations, particularly in infection. Partial immunity to an infectious agent either through prior exposure or preventive inoculation may modify the inflammatory reaction considerably. See IMMUNITY INFECTION. [W.S.A.]

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Inflorescence

An inflorescence is a flower cluster or the arrangement of flowers on a plant. It is a branch system—simple if the main axis is undivided, compound if the axis divides into two or more branches. The stalk of the inflorescence is the peduncle; the axis is the rachis; and the stalks of individual flowers of the cluster are pedicels. The inflorescence may be subtended by a whorl of bracts called the involucre.

Types. Inflorescences are classified as determinate when the terminal bud forms a flower, thereby arresting further growth of the axis, with later flower development in succession from the tip toward the base; or indeterminate when the tip continues to grow, forming new flowers in succession, the oldest at the base. Indeterminate types include the following: raceme, pedicels of about equal length on an elongated axis; spike, similar to raceme but with sessile (without pedicels) flowers; spadix, a fleshy thickened spike frequently subtended by a large bract (spathe); catkin (ament), scaly spike sometimes pendent of unisexual flowers; corymb, lower pedicel elongated giving flat topped appearance; umbel, pedicels all arise at top of peduncle and radiate like umbrella ribs.



Inflorescence types. (a) Raceme (b) Spike (c) Spad (psyllide) (d) Catkins, male and female (e) Corymb (f) Simple umbel (g) Compound umbel (h) Head (i) Panicle (j) Solitary (k) Simple cyme (l) Compound cyme (m) Helicoid cyme

head rounded or flattened compact cluster of sessile flowers on a very short axis or receptacle; panicle a branched raceme.

Determinate types include: solitary, lone flower on peduncle; cyme, loose flat topped cluster with central flowers opening first; helicoid cyme (often referred to as corpioid), coiled cluster with flowers on only one side of axis.

Considerable confusion exists regarding the use of the terms helicoid and scorpioid. As the two types are not readily discriminated, some taxonomists prefer to use the older and more common term corpioid for all coiled inflorescences. See FLOWER (BOTANY), PLANT ORGANS. [W.A.]

Bibliography. See PLANT TAXONOMY.

Influenza

An acute respiratory viral infection, usually epidemic in occurrence.

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In human infection the virus enters the respiratory tract in air-borne droplets within 1-2 days, inflammation of the respiratory tract occurs with

subcutaneous tissue. The inflammatory process extends to neighboring compartments and acts as if there were multiple adjacent abscesses. Abscesses located deep under a surface may continue to expand and destroy much of the organ.

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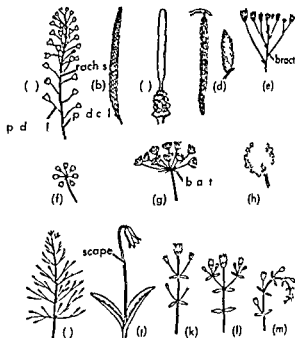
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me ages for inp t t th ha nel Similarly the re
e ng end of the y tem will conta n a dec der to
o ert the utp t of the h nel nt a form re
ogn able by the de ti at on The encoder and
de der ar th pat to b de igned In adi sys
tems thi de gn is es ent ally the choi e f a modu
lat ra d detect r

Dis te and c nti uous cas A source is called
d ser te f i t me ages are sequences of elements
(l tte s) taken fr m an enumerable et of p s b i l
t (l i habet) Thus our e p d u ng integ r
data or written Engli h r d rete So re s which
are t d s c te r all d e o t i uou fo example
pe ch nd mu our e Likewise hannels re
la fed disc te c ntn ou s a c d ng t th
k nd f i l they t an nt Mo t r m i on
med a (ch a s t a m n l nd rad o path)
ea p vide c n t nu u cha nel howe e con
str nts (su h a a re trict n t use p l e t e h
n qu) n t i e u of these m dia may con rt them
nto d c et chan els

Noise ss and no sy es Th output f a ch n
n l need ot gre w th t input For example a
ha n l m ght, f e crecy pu po s ta n a
cryptog aph c device to cr amb the me s ge S e
PRIVACY SYSTEMS (SCRAMBLING) St ll f th outp t
f th ha el a b c mp ted k w ng) st the
f p t m ge the th ch n n l lled no e
l s I f howe andom ge s m ke th o tput
pr d c t ble e en whe th n p t s kn wn then
the h n l i c l l d n i v

Encoding and decoding M ny enc d rs f i t
lreak th me s ge to a seque e f lementary
bl cks next they b s t u te fo ea h block a r p
r entati od gn l i tabl fo inp t to

the channel. Such encoders are called block encoders. For example, telegraph and teletype systems both use block encoders in which the blocks are individual letters. Entire words form the blocks of some commercial cablegram systems. The operation of a block encoder may be described completely by a function or table showing for each possible block the code that represents it.

It is generally impossible for a decoder to reconstruct with certainty a message received via a noisy channel. Suitable encoding, however, may make the noise tolerable. For illustration, consider a channel that transmits pulses of two kinds. It is customary to let binary digits 0 and 1 denote the two kinds of pulse. Suppose the source has only four letters A B C D. One might simply encode each single-letter block into a pair of binary digits (see Code I of table). In that case the decoder would make a mistake every time noise produced an error. If Code II is used, the decoder can at least recognize that a received triple of digits must contain errors if it is one of the triples 001 010 100 111 not listed in the Code II column. Because an error in any one of the three pulses of Code II always produces a triple that is not listed, Code II provides single error detection. Similarly, Code III provides double error detection because errors in a single pulse or pair of pulses always produce a quintuple that is not listed.

As an alternative, Code III may provide single error correction, an idea due to R. W. Hamming. In this usage, the decoder picks a letter for which Code III agrees with the received quintuple in as many places as possible. If only a single digit is in error, this rule chooses the correct letter. More elaborate lists of codes may be constructed to correct worse errors or to accommodate larger alphabets.

Even when the channel is noiseless, a variety of encoding schemes exists and there is a problem of picking a good one. Of all encodings of English letters into dots and dashes, the Continental Morse encoding is nearly the fastest possible one. It achieves its speed by associating short code words with the most common letters. A noiseless binary channel (capable of transmitting two kinds of pulse of the same duration) provides the following example. Suppose one had to encode English text for this channel. A simple encoding might just use 27 different 5-digit codes to represent word space (denoted by #). A B C D #
say # 00000 A 00001 B 00010 C 00011 D 11011. The word #CAB would then be encoded into 000000001100001000010. A similar encoding is used in teletype transmission, however, it places a third

kind of pulse at the beginning of each code to help the decoder stay in synchronism with the encoder (see TELETYPEWRITER). The 5-digit encoding can be improved by a signaling 4-digit code 0000 0001 0010 0100 to the five most common letters # E T A O. There are 22 quintuples of binary digits which do not begin with any of the five 4-digit codes; these may be assigned as code words to the 22 remaining letters. About half the letters of English text are # E T A or O, thus the new encoding uses an average of only 4.5 digits per letter of message.

More generally, if an alphabet is encoded in single letter blocks using $L(i)$ digits for the i th letter, the average number of digits used per letter is

$$L = p(1)L(1) + p(2)L(2) + p(3)L(3) + \dots \quad (1)$$

where $p(i)$ is the probability of the i th letter. An optimal encoding scheme will minimize L . However, the encoded messages must be decipherable, and this condition puts constraints on the $L(i)$. B. McMillan has shown that the code lengths of decipherable encodings must satisfy

$$2^{-L(1)} + 2^{-L(2)} + 2^{-L(3)} + \dots \leq 1 \quad (2)$$

The real numbers $L(1), L(2), \dots$ which minimize L subject to the condition (2) are $L(i) = -\log_2 p(i)$ and the corresponding minimum L is

$$H = -\sum p(i) \log_2 p(i) \quad (3)$$

digits per letter. The $L(i)$ must be integers and $-\log_2 p(i)$ generally are not integers for this reason; there may be no encoding which provides $L = H$. However, Shannon showed that it is always possible to assign codes to letters in such a way that $L \leq H + 1$. A procedure for constructing an encoding which actually minimizes L has been given by D. A. Huffman. For (27 letter) English text, $H = 4.08$ digits per letter, as compared with the actual minimum 4.12 digits per letter obtained by Huffman's procedure.

By encoding in blocks of more than one letter, the average number of digits used per letter may be reduced further. If messages are constructed by picking letters independently with the probabilities $p(1), p(2), \dots$, then H is found to be the minimum of the average numbers of digits per letter used to encode the messages using longer blocks.

Information content of a message. The information contained in a message unit is defined in terms of the average number of digits required to encode it. Accurately the information associated with a single letter predicted by a discrete source is defined to be the number H . Since the properties of H help to justify using it as a measure of information, if one of the $p(i)$ is quite small, the letter i appears in the message. The new information earned by using a letter i is $-\log_2 p(i)$. Second of all possible ways of assigning probabilities $p(i)$ to an alphabet is that in which

Three possible binary codes for 4-letter alphabet

| Letter | Code I | Code II | Code III |
|--------|--------|---------|-----------|
| A | 0 0 | 0 0 0 | 0 0 0 0 0 |
| B | 0 1 | 0 1 1 | 0 0 1 1 1 |
| C | 1 0 | 1 0 1 | 1 1 0 0 1 |
| D | 1 1 | 1 1 0 | 1 1 1 1 0 |

a channel with roughly 8 db smaller signal power (the 8 db figure is merely typical and really depends on the reliability requirements) Again more efficient encoding to combat noise generally requires larger sized blocks. This is to be expected. The signal is separated from the noise on the basis of differences between the signal's statistical properties and those of noise. The block size must be large enough to supply the decoder with enough data to draw statistically significant conclusions. See NOISE ELECTRICAL [ENG]

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Information theory (biological applications)

Information is customarily analyzed with respect to meaning, origin and value. The modern information theory adds another dimension, amount. The need for a measure of amounts of information arose in telecommunication and in the general treatment of control and communication (cybernetics). Once a precise technical definition had been developed it was found that its domain of validity was wide and included biology. See BIOLOGY CYBERNETICS.

Representation theorem The first basic concept in information theory is that the information content of an event is not defined by what has occurred, but only with respect to what might have occurred instead. For instance, the amount of information in the phrase "4 miles per hour" is defined only against a background of other possible speeds. To formalize this idea consider the set of all actualities (things, processes) which may be relevant in a given class of situations. Let these actualities be partitioned into classes according to any principle chosen; the elements together form a pattern of information about the actualities under consideration. Amount of information is not defined with respect to the actualities themselves, but with respect to a given pattern of information about them. It is related to the task of specifying (selecting, recognizing) a particular class in a particular pattern for a particular actuality.

The information contents of two different patterns are compared by determining whether one can represent the other. If every class in a pattern A can be associated with at least one class in a pattern B , then every event as defined under pattern A can be represented by some event defined

under pattern B and B is said to have an information content at least as great as A . The comparison is merely formal; it makes no difference whether the association invoked is natural or arbitrary and whether or not a representation of A by B is likely to occur. A common yardstick for all patterns of information is obtained by using a standard representation: it is customary to use binary symbols. In other words, the information content of a pattern X is determined by finding how many vectors or no decisions are needed on average to specify which particular class of the pattern has occurred. As in a botanical key, the number of decisions made is not necessarily the same for all classes; it will be efficient to associate events which occur frequently with the shortest decision sequences (as in the Morse code in which the shortest symbol groups are used for the most frequent letters). It is shown in texts on information theory that the optimum relation is achieved if each class of probability p is represented by a binary number of $-\log p$ digits. In general it will be necessary to set up the representation for a sized clusters of events in order to obtain a classification in which all probabilities p are integral powers of $1/2$. Therefore if X is a pattern of information comprising r classes with probabilities p_i (where $i = 1, 2, \dots, r$), then ex_1 is a function $H(X)$ which is the minimum average number of binary symbols per event; its value is given by

$$H(X) = \sum p_i (-\log_2 p_i)$$

$H(X)$ can be as small as 0 (when one $p_i = 1.0$) and as large as $\log_2 r$ (when all p_i are equal). It is called information content (amount, quantity of information) of X and also the uncertainty of X (some prefer opposite sign for the two functions). It is also called entropy (or negentropy) because it is related to physical entropy; the term "measure of specificity" can be used to avoid the association with mental processes implied by the word "information". See ENTROPY.

The H function is important in dealing with transfer of information. Any operation on information involves mapping from one pattern A into another pattern B . In many instances the patterns are very dissimilar and the transfer operation far from perspicuous. The following theorem holds for every act of information transfer: transfer from pattern A into pattern B is possible only if $H(B) \geq H(A)$, and the amount of information transferred per act cannot be greater than $H(A)$. This is the content of the representation theorem, the first fundamental theorem of information theory. It implies that it is not allowed to check the possibility of an operation in itself, simply that such an operation actually occurs. It says nothing about the means of information transfer and particularly does not imply that efficient binary coding is useful at any stage of the process. It says nothing about cause and effect of the

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f p d mecha m mu t t ly If pa t A of a
sy tem is p po d t e n tr l part B then it m t
be a med that p t A ca m t at le t s many
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stru t a d fu t n th n ca l e a c t d fo
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Noise and redundancy theorem The elatu-
between r l b l t y a d n f m t n c n t n t n
tutes th sec nd b a part of n f m t n
theory Con d n f m t n t r f e r f m X
nto l f r am p l t y b e the input a d Y the
p t f some yst m If ach r t s f r p o c s s
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l a d v c e r s X nd Y r d to be n c t d
by n e e s cha nel nd $H(X) = H(Y)$ If
th t a l p o c e s s b y t t p e r t u b a t
th t a l f the ch n l n o y th s w n f m a
t n w l b l t t n t e t and th r w l be m
n t y r g Y f Y kn wn Th u n
r t n t y c a l l d e q u o c a t n nd d g t e d
 $H(X/Y)$ Th d f f e u c e r t n t y e r u g

Y before a d after the tran fer process that is
 $H(Y) - H(Y/Y)$ is c lled th amount of infor-
mat n transm tted

If c n t o l act on depends upon inform t on
transm tted th n input eq uoc t on w ll some-
times le d t faulty re p o e The only prot ction
ag nst lo s of information is th a corpo ation into
the input f extra inf rm t on which can be u ed
to sp t and correct error This is redundant in-
form t ion A t t a l e am p le of redundancy is the
repet t ion of a me s g e I gen r l the probab l ty
of a error remain ng uncorrected w ll be small r
the more red ndant informat on is added and the
m re effe t tly it used It is h wn in texts on
informat n theory that it is po ble to make the
er o probab l ty anish by prec ly mat h ng the
amo nt of redundant informat on to the amount of
nform t n wh h s expect d t b lost as a result
of no se This is the co tent of th no se and
redundancy theorem the sec nd fundam ntal theo-
rem in informat n theory

Although t t alway p ssible to elimi ate errors
it is often o t p actical and ind ed not efficient It
h s been s e t e d that an opt m m strategy for
h ng th g s s to e m m t as many errors as is
m p t a b l with survival (Dan off's principl)
Th s ha been u ed t e tablish relations between
the p obab l ty of an o gan sm to fail (f r example
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a result of the dm n t r t ion of a ou delete u y
g n t S e INFORMATION THEORY [H Q]
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Informat n theory n d i o b o l g v A n Rev Nu-
cl ar Sc a 8 387 398 19 8 C E Shannon The
M th m at of Th o y of Commu cation 1949
H P Yockey (ed) Symp sium on Info mat n
Theory n Biology 1958

Infrared detector

A devic fo detecting electrom gnetic adiat on
h ng a wa el th greate than th t detectable
by th humane S e INFRARED RADIATION

I f r d d e t e c t r s are used n elect on e equip-
me t for ma y p u p o s s s cl as d e t e c t i n g f i x e d
d e t e c t g o h e a t n i n m c h n e r y d e t e c t i n g p l e
e h l e s n d e v e p e o p l e n d c o n t o l l g t m p e r
a t u r e s e n t i e n d t r i a l p o c e s e s

I n f r e d d e t e c t r s may be l s f i e d by the b s i
m e c h n m o l o p t i o n O n c l a s c a l l e d t h e r m a l
d e t e c t o r s u s e the powe f the rad at on to m-
r a e the temp ratu e of the d e t e c t i g l m n t
This i n t a r c a s e s o m e p r p e r t y of the d e t e c t
o f t e n the e l e t a l r e s t a n e t c h a g e I n the
e c o d c l a l l e d p h o d t e c t s the r d i t i o n
p o d e s a d e c t f l e c t s o m l e c t i l p r o p-
r t y f the d e t e c t o r

The therm f c l s s e m p l e s the rad at o ther-
m o c u p l e th b o l m t n d the G l y cell The
rad at o the m o c p l h s n u m b e r of thermo-
c o u p l e s n e c t d i n s e r a r n g e d t h a t the

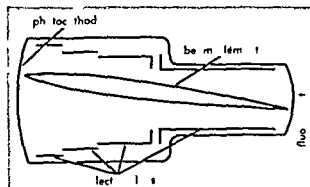
radiation falls on half of the junctions thus causing a voltage to be generated. The bolometer functions through a resistance change in a material having a high temperature coefficient of resistance. The Golay cell utilizes the heat of the radiation to deflect a diaphragm in accordance with the amount of radiation. See **BOLOMETER THERMOCOUPLE**.

The photodetector can be classified by type of most efficient use a photoconductive and photovoltaic. The electron can be classified into the compound types such as lead sulfide, lead selenide, lead telluride and thallium sulfide and the elemental types such as germanium and silicon. However some types such as germanium or silicon photodiodes and phototransistors can be used as either photoconductive or photovoltaic detectors. For more detailed information see **PHOTOCONDUCTIVE CELL PHOTODIODE PHOTOTRANSISTOR PHOTOVOLTAIC CELL RADIONETRY** [WRSI]

Infrared image converter tube

A tube which effectively allows one to see in the dark. It was developed during World War II in response to an obvious need for such a device.

The infrared image converter tube or the infrared tube cope as it is sometimes called is an evacuated tube which has on one end a transparent



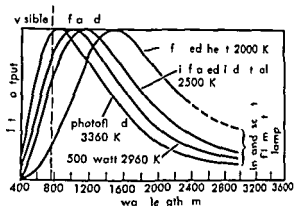
Infrared image converter tube

photocathode sensitive to infrared radiation. The scene to be viewed is optically focused on this photocathode causing electrons to be emitted in proportion to the intensity of the infrared illumination. The electrons so emitted are focused by electrostatic lenses upon a fluorescent screen at the other end of the tube which is excited by electrons impinging on radiating visible light and thus give a visible image of the invisible excitation at the other end of the tube. The basic structure is shown in the illustration. Such tubes are sensitive out to 12 μ . The visible spectrum extends only to 0.4 μ .

The infrared image tube by itself is not sensitive enough to see any but rather warm objects such as a hot engine or a lighted cigarette. As a result it is necessary to use an infrared searchlight to illuminate the field to be viewed. With such an arrangement, items were made which had a range of as much as 100 yd. See **INFRARED RADIATION VACUUM TUBE** [KRS]

Infrared lamp

An electric lamp that radiates energy at wavelengths between 760 and 5000 millimicrons ($m\mu$) in the electromagnetic spectrum. Infrared lamps



Spectral distribution of energy from various infrared sources (from Illuminating Engineering Society IES Lighting Handbook 2d ed 1952)

are essentially incandescent lamps operating at a reduced voltage with a filament temperature of 4000 F. Between 10 and 15% of the energy is converted to light. Both carbon and tungsten filaments are used; the tungsten is more efficient. The average life is 5000 hr and 25 different types are available. Other forms of radiant heaters generate longer wavelengths causing heat absorption by the air. The short wave generated by the infrared lamp can be concentrated and directed; the reflector type lamp is the most satisfactory. The illustration shows the spectral distribution of energy from various incandescent filament lamps. The infrared lamps concentrate their energy in the infrared region.

Infrared lamps are used for therapeutic treatment for heating applications in industry and in home and for farm use in brooders (called heat lamp). They are effective and safe and the heating effect is instantaneous because the air need not be heated first. The most extensive application is in industry where they are used for baking (such as the curing of applied finishes) for heating (as in preparing material for pressing) and for drying (refractory material). See **INFRARED RADIATION INFRARED RADIATION (BIOLOGY) SPECTROPHOTOMETRY ANALYSIS** [JOK]

Bibliography Illuminating Engineering Society IES Lighting Handbook 2d ed 1952

Infrared radiation

Electromagnetic radiation whose wavelength lies in the range from about 0.8 $m\mu$ to about 1000 $m\mu$ (1 mm). The lower of the limits is large in relation to the long wavelength limit of the human eye sensitivity to red light and the upper limit is the wavelength limit to radiation which can be generated and measured by microwaves. Infrared radiation is emitted and absorbed by all bodies whose temperature is above absolute zero.

lute zone add to some erythema and if the effect temperature a value up to about 3500 K the addition fall preponderantly the infrared He infrared radiation is fit in cell heat radiation rays

The infrared new discovered about 1800 by Sir William Herschel He found that the unperturbed to a part by a glass prism howed it grates the tinge effect of the visible part of the spectrum just beyond the red end Herchel noted that the effect was due to a visible radiation of the same nature as light put first in ability to affect the In the next 50 years experimental proof of this was slowly accumulated and the science generally accepted by scientists for the past century

Among the scientific industrial and military application of infrared addition to the may be mentioned qualitative and quantitative chemical analysis by frequency spectroscopy of infrared process and anthracene visible galig bu gla al rms military messages and the like active and passive detection of military target and missile

The role of the spectral analysis on so red detect and propagation of infrared radiation F related a detailed military information ELECTRO INACTIVITY RADIATION HEAT RADIATION INFRARED LAMP INFRARED RADIATION (BIOLOGY) INFRARED SPECTROSCOPY MISSILE GUIDANCE SYSTEMS PHOTOGRAPHY RADIOMETRY SPECTROPHOTOMETRY ANALYSIS

Infrared spectrum The infrared region is often divided into the following regions: ultraviolet, visible, infrared, and microwave. The infrared region is further divided into near infrared, mid infrared, and far infrared. The near infrared region is the region of the spectrum just beyond the visible region. The mid infrared region is the region of the spectrum between the near infrared and far infrared regions. The far infrared region is the region of the spectrum beyond the mid infrared region.

The table implies the infrared radiation can be detected by photovoltaic cells and thermopiles. The frequency range of the lower infrared region is from 10 to 1000 cm⁻¹. The frequency range of the mid infrared region is from 1000 to 10,000 cm⁻¹. The frequency range of the far infrared region is from 10,000 to 1,000,000 cm⁻¹. The frequency range of the microwave region is from 1,000,000 to 10,000,000,000 cm⁻¹.

Subdivisions of the infrared spectrum

| Wavelength range | Frequency range | Wavenumber range | Notes | Appropriate detection methods |
|------------------|------------------------------|------------------|---------------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 0.8 - 5 μm | 4000 - 1500 cm ⁻¹ | 5 - 15 μm | IR photovoltaic cells, IR thermopiles | Low level detection |
| 5 - 50 μm | 600 - 4000 cm ⁻¹ | 15 - 100 μm | IR thermopiles, IR photovoltaic cells | Mid level detection |
| 50 - 1000 μm | 10 - 60 cm ⁻¹ | 100 - 1000 μm | IR thermopiles, IR photovoltaic cells | High level detection |

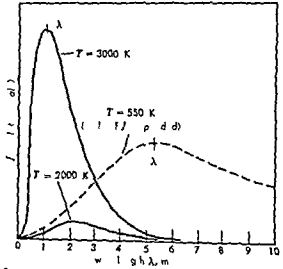


Fig 1 Spectral intensity I versus wavelength λ in micrometers (μm) for three different temperatures T . The curves show that as temperature decreases, the peak intensity shifts to longer wavelengths and the overall intensity decreases.

It is found that the region of the spectrum called the far infrared is the region of the spectrum between the mid infrared and microwave regions. The far infrared region is the region of the spectrum beyond the mid infrared region. The far infrared region is the region of the spectrum between the mid infrared and microwave regions. The far infrared region is the region of the spectrum beyond the mid infrared region. The far infrared region is the region of the spectrum between the mid infrared and microwave regions. The far infrared region is the region of the spectrum beyond the mid infrared region.

Sources of infrared radiation The usual sources of infrared radiation are the sun, the earth, and the atmosphere. The sun is the primary source of infrared radiation. The earth is the secondary source of infrared radiation. The atmosphere is the tertiary source of infrared radiation. The sun is the primary source of infrared radiation. The earth is the secondary source of infrared radiation. The atmosphere is the tertiary source of infrared radiation. The sun is the primary source of infrared radiation. The earth is the secondary source of infrared radiation. The atmosphere is the tertiary source of infrared radiation.

into quantum detectors resonant detectors and heat engines or thermal detectors. The first are devices which convert a quantum of the radiation in question into a proportionate signal by some process which is insensitive to quanta of less than a certain energy (for example the mean energy of quanta emitted by a body at room temperature). Photographic emulsions photoelectric cells and Geiger counters are examples of quantum detectors. Resonant detectors are devices that are responsive only to radiation of the frequency to which they are tuned. Heat engines act as detectors by converting the radiation into heat and using the heat to operate a device that produces a signal that is proportionate to the amount of radiant energy received.

No resonant detectors have yet been constructed which can be tuned to infrared frequencies. For the photoelectric infrared (see the table) quantum detectors in the form of specially sensitized photographic emulsions photoemissive cells and particularly photoconductive cells are usable. As can be seen from Fig. 2 the responsivity of such detectors varies considerably with frequency and drops to low values at wave numbers of about 2000–3000 cm^{-1} ($3.5\text{--}5\ \mu$ in wavelength). Photoconductive detectors are known having good responsivity below 2000 cm^{-1} (above $5\ \mu$) but these must be operated at or near liquid helium temperatures ($<10\ \text{K}$).

Therefore in a large part of the infrared region heat engine detectors whose responsivity is the same to all kinds of radiation provided the radiation is converted entirely to heat in the detector are the

only generally usable kind. Examples of heat engine detectors are thermocouples and thermopiles which produce an emf when heated bolometers which change their electrical resistance when heated and pneumatic radiometer in which heat is detected by the increase in pressure of a heated gas. Because these devices are all subject to the laws of thermodynamics governing the conversion of heat into useful work (that is into a signal) their ultimate responsivity is expected to be approximately the same and this is found to be the case. Thermal detectors operating at room temperature have a lower limit of sensitivity of the order of 10^{-10} watt with response times of the order of 0.1 sec. This limit can be considerably reduced if the detector is capable of operation at low temperatures.

Propagation of infrared radiation. The properties of various media for the transmission of infrared radiation are often quite different from those of light. For example window glass is quite opaque to $5\ \mu$ radiation whereas pure germanium crystals which do not transmit visible radiation are very transparent to this wavelength (apart from reflection losses which can be reduced by surface coatings).

The attenuation of infrared radiation by the atmosphere is of special interest. Nitrogen, oxygen and the rare gases are transparent to all infrared wavelengths but water vapor and carbon dioxide are strongly absorbing in certain regions. In the range 0.8–40 μ there is irregular absorption due mainly to water vapor with more or less open windows at about 1.0, 1.4, 1.6, 2.2 and 3.4 μ . From 4 to 8 μ water vapor and carbon dioxide together are strongly absorbing but there is an extensive window from 8 to 13.5 μ . This window is of great meteorological importance because the peak of the radiation curve of the earth falls near 10 μ . Beyond 14 out to 600 μ there is more or less continuous absorption by atmospheric water vapor arising from the rotational energy level of this molecule.

Liquid water is rather generally opaque in the infrared above $2\ \mu$ in path length larger than 1 mm. The transmission of infrared radiation through fog is little better than that of visible light because of a combination of scattering and absorption by the water droplets. The popular misconception that fog is transparent to infrared radiation has perhaps arisen from the well advertised effectiveness of red-on-the-phosphor photographic film for photography through atmospheric haze of light particles.

[N.C.L.]

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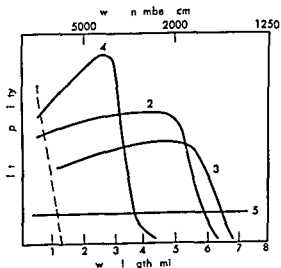


Fig. 2. Spectral sensitivity of infrared detectors: 1. Infrared sensitized photographic emulsion; 2. PbTe (lead telluride) photoconductive detector (refrigerated); 3. PbSe (lead selenide) photoconductive detector; 4. PbS (lead sulfide) photoconductive detector; 5. Thermal detector. Responsivity scale is the same for the various detectors but the approximate wavelengths at which detectors 1, 2, 3, and 4 become less responsive than a thermal detector to a constant flux are shown.

into quantum detector resonant detectors and heat engines or thermal detectors. The first are devices which convert a quantum of the radiation in question into a proportionate signal by some process which is in intimate quantitative relationship to a certain energy (for example the mean energy of quanta emitted by a body at room temperature). Photographic emulsion photoelectric cells and Geiger counters are examples of quantum detectors. Resonant detectors are devices that are responsive only to radiation of the frequency to which they are tuned. Heat engines act as detectors by converting the radiation into heat and using the heat to operate a device that produces a signal that is proportionate to the amount of radiant energy received.

Nonresonant detectors have yet been constructed which can be tuned to infrared frequencies. For the photoelectric infrared (see the table) quantum detectors in the form of specially sensitized photographic emulsions photoemissive cells and particularly photoconductive cells are usable. As can be seen from Fig. 2 the responsivity of such detectors varies considerably with frequency and drops to low value at wave numbers of about 2000–3000 cm^{-1} (3.5–5 μ in wavelength). Photoconductive detectors are known having good responsivity below 2000 cm^{-1} (above 5 μ) but they must be operated at or near liquid helium temperatures (<10 K).

Therefore in a large part of the infrared region heat engine detectors whose responsivity is the same to all kinds of radiation provided the radiation is converted entirely to heat in the detector are the

only generally usable kind. Examples of heat engine detectors are thermocouples and thermopiles which produce an emf when heated bolometers which change their electrical resistance when heated and pneumatic radiometers in which heat is detected by the increase in pressure of a heated gas. Because these devices are all subject to the laws of thermodynamics governing the conversion of heat into useful work (that is into a signal) their ultimate responsivity is expected to be approximately the same and this is found to be the case. Thermal detectors operating at room temperature have a lower limit of sensitivity of the order of 10^{-10} watt with response times of the order of 0.1 sec. This limit can be considerably reduced if the detector is capable of operation at low temperature.

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[R.C.L.]

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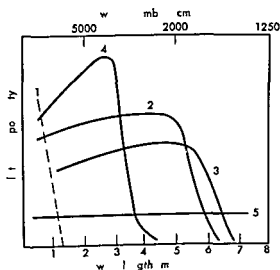


Fig. 2 Spectral sensitivity of various detectors. 1 Infrared sensitized photographic emulsion. 2 PbTe (lead telluride) photoconductive detector (refrigerated). 3 PbS (lead selenide) photoconductive detector (refrigerated). 4 PbS (lead selenide) photoconductive detector. 5 The thermal detector responsivity scale is the same for the various detectors but the apparent wavelengths at which detectors 1, 2, 3, and 4 become less responsive than a thermal detector are correctly shown.

Infrared radiation (biology)

Infr red rad at ons or py th sp n between the v bl spect um and rad waves ncompa ing w vel ngths 700-4000 000 A neither boundary be g prec ely delimit ed All bod es abo e baso l te zer in mper tu e r pot ntial u ces of i fa ed rad at n th ref re ll organ m ar e ntin ally xpo ed to them About 60° f the eu r ys a infra ed Water aborbs infrared radiat on tr ngly except f the band of transpa ncy between 800 d 14000 A Since p topla m nt much wat r ut ab orbs nfared d at ead ly A la ge a mal ab orbs infrar d ad at n at t s r f ce only the p fr m 7800 t 14000 A pe trating as far s th bl od seels S INFRAR DIATION

While m y subta ces and even tu u l c t ly abo b frared r y and e m g t the e f e pot late f t ffects f the e r dist n n n h e been un q ocaly dem nstr ted e c pt po ibly n jun t on w th x r y The r a o is perh p be au e q anta f nfr red r d t n do n t excite e e gy t tes n m lecul s oth r than thos e c ted by cond t d he t S e XRAY(S) PHYSICAL NATURE OF

The e ent l bi log al flect of i fared ays d pnd p marly po the r e i tempe t re p od e f ll w g the ab op t on wh h nt rn e e th rate f b l g cal ct u s n pr p t t the mpe tu e hange B ue of the p m e of nfra d u light rg msh w many d pti s t d ip te t a d th h at The mpe t r f a l rg a mal plant may r e temp arly b t th heat i d ip ted by tr p t n th pl t and by pe pr at n n th n m f s bme ged n m l and plant a p tected by the wat the mpe ture h nge of w h d pe d po the he t ap ac ty f the par t l body f wate

Test m t f b l g al m t erial w th i f red ad t (800-11500 A) the befor r f r s a t atment e as th a g me t n h m m du ed b the y in t r es f pla t a d a m l tested Th w y n wh h the t f ed r d n d th i u kn w b t a m pa all m t f e du ted he t doe t ha e th m flect

Th med l ma mak f fr ed d t t t p an t an bu t pe pher l scul d e s e s i t i m l p nd m ny t l pan f h h h at g g e s r l e f p bably b e a f w d lat f periph r l el F th p r p os gl w l d t a e g n rally e r p l e d t t f e om p p o es t mo p net t g d t (800-14000 A) obta n ble f m desc t m es e p f ble to th gl w f t m l t u l t de pe n th t ues s B u y s Th r t t u r r y [A c G l] B H K p h y O C l e M d l Ph s s l 1914 A H l d (ed) R d n B l K 11 194

Infrared spectroscopy

Th tudy f t e p opert es of mat r al y tems by m ans of the r int ract on w th i fared radiat n d p r ed nto a pectrum (se INFRARED RADIATION) Th infra ed region is valuable for study of the str ture of matt r beca e the natural v bra t i na l fr quencies of atom in m lecul es an f crys tal fall in the nfared ra ge Some ga eous m le ules al o l e rotat na l fr quencies in the far inf ar d range a d certain fr quencie e rre pond ng t energy le els f electr ns in olids and large molecules e rre-p o d t th e of the n ar i f r red F r a d t l d d i cu i n f molecular brati n a d otation se MOLECULAR STRUCTURE AND SPECTRA

Th i fared ab orption spectrum of a molecule is highly har cteristic and often ha been re f r ed t as a molecular fing r print The pectrum a thus b u ed f r m lec l r ad ntific t n Be au e th ab rpt n of radiat on at a r i us in fr r d fr q en es quantitat ely related to the umbe of ab rhng molecules n y tem q anti tati e naly i s i al o p o s bl

Th usefulness of an nfra ed ab orption spec trum fo identifi at n and chem al analys s was r e g n i z d a l ng go a 1890 I the ea ly 1900 th Am r an phy c t W W Coblenztz determin d the nfared spectra f hu d ed f ub tan e and clearly demon trated th potent al alue of uch spectra Unfortunately the i tumentat n of that d y was cumber m and nece arly homemade th t few phy c ts and chem ts we e attra ted by Coblenztz w k Only afte the developm nt f c mmer ial el tron c de ces for ampl fcat n and e ding of nt n u ly nned pectrum was ext n e m de f the techn q Apart f om refi me t s st m nt t ion th nfared pe tra f mol ul s e obta n d tod y n ba lly the ame wa th t u ed by Coble tz

Instrumentation and techniques Th al a an m nt f r measu em nt of an infrar d pec trum i hown hem t e ll in F l A ou Q e nd be m f c ntinu us infrar d radiat on t a sph r l a l c nde g m r r r C which passes th h am th gh S th mple t be t u ed s me f th inf red frequen e in th beam ab orbed tro gl some w akly The educed b m pa es n and c m s t a f u at th entra ce lit of th r on l m t r W Th latte is an i fared p ctr m ter wh h d per e the radi t n int a sp ctrum One f q e cy t t me appears at the ext slit f W f m wh ch th ad at of that f qu nev i p ed b a t ble pt al tem to th detect T The det t (a th rm pl o ther des) c n ert the r d t energy into an elect i al signal wh ch i amplified ele tron lly t d nd rec d d by a char t r d r CR

An f a ed p trum s a cord of ten ty of f a d r d at on as a funct n f frequen y o wa le gth To p od ce u h a reco d th ch r r r ord d r i ync hr n r i w th th dis

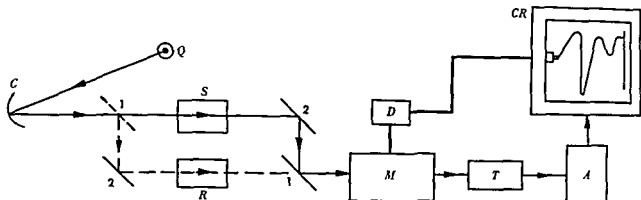


Fig 1 Diagram of a recording infrared spectrometer

persing system of the monochromator M by some common driving mechanism D . In this way a given position on the chart corresponds directly to a given frequency setting of M at which setting radiation of that frequency is emerging from M .

For many basic reasons—atmospheric absorption variation of source intensity with frequency changing dispersion in the spectrometer and the like—the electrical output of the detector would not be constant even if the sample S were completely transparent. To correct for these variations it is necessary to determine two spectra: one with the sample S in the beam and one with S removed from the beam. The absorption of S as a function of frequency can then be computed from these two spectra. The individual spectra on which the computation is based are called single-beam spectra.

The computation is laborious, time-consuming and potentially unreliable because of changes in the entire system between the two determinations of spectra. The difficulties are avoided if a second optical path shown in dotted lines in Fig 1 is introduced. The second optical path called the reference beam is made as nearly like the first as possible except for the absence of the sample. In fact the reference beam may contain an absorption cell R which differs from S only in the absence of the sample itself. For instance if the sample S were in solution R would contain the same amount of solute as S .

The operation of the double-beam spectrometer often called a spectrophotometer consists of a rapid switching of the beam (say 10 times per second) back and forth between S and R by alternately placing plane mirrors 1 and 1 in the optical system. The identical mirrors 2 and 2 are permanently placed. The spectrum is scanned continuously as for single-beam operation but the beams through S and R are compared 10 times per second and the chart records the energy passing through S relative to that through R . In this way the variations mentioned cancel out.

Typical spectra Typical infrared spectra plotted automatically as percentage transmission of the sample on a linear frequency scale (wave number in cm^{-1}) are shown in Fig 2. Samples of gases, liquids and solids can be readily measured. Techniques for high and low temperature of sample

and for small samples (down to about 1 mg or less in special cases) are in common use.

Per cent transmission T , the quantity usually plotted by commercial instruments, is defined as

$$T = 100 I / I_0$$

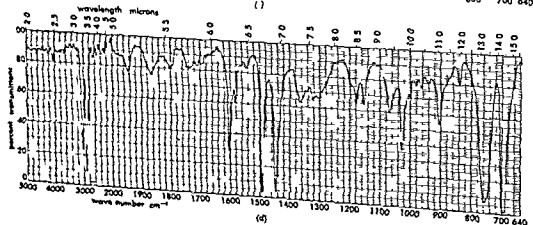
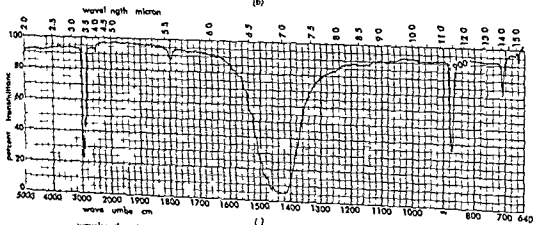
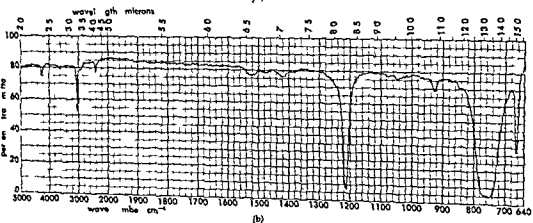
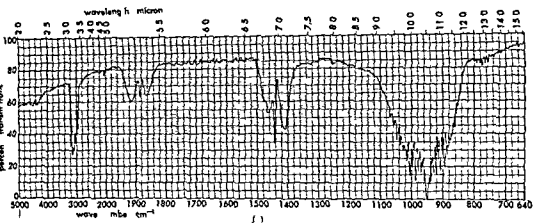
Here I_0 is the intensity of infrared radiation of frequency ν entering the sample and I is the intensity of the same radiation after passing through the sample. The per cent transmission T at frequency ν is different in principle at different values of A . A quantity of fundamental importance, the absorbance A , is

$$A = \log (I_0 / I) = -\log (T / 100)$$

The absorbance A is proportional to the number of absorbing molecules and by evaluating the proportionality constant at frequency ν for a given kind of molecule in a particular system, the number of such molecules in other systems of the same kind may be measured quantitatively.

Applications An infrared spectrum consists of a plot of T or A as a function of (or of wave length λ). The basic information provided by the spectrum is a set of values at which the substance is absorbing strongly that is at which T is a minimum (Fig 2) or A is a maximum. The frequencies of maximum absorption usually correspond to the actual vibrational frequencies of the absorbing molecules or to some arithmetical combination of such vibrational frequencies. If the molecules are in the vapor phase absorption maxima

Fig 2 Typical infrared spectra recorded automatically. Not compressed scale of left portion of absorbance (a) Spectrum of ethyl acetate in solution (b) Spectrum of liquid chloroform (c) Spectrum of powder of crystalline calcium carbonate. Powder was prepared by ball mill. (d) Spectrum of polymethylsiloxane. (e) Spectrum of polyethylene. (f) Spectrum of polyethylene oxide. (g) Spectrum of polyethylene glycol. (h) Spectrum of polyethylene glycol. (i) Spectrum of polyethylene glycol. (j) Spectrum of polyethylene glycol. (k) Spectrum of polyethylene glycol. (l) Spectrum of polyethylene glycol. (m) Spectrum of polyethylene glycol. (n) Spectrum of polyethylene glycol. (o) Spectrum of polyethylene glycol. (p) Spectrum of polyethylene glycol. (q) Spectrum of polyethylene glycol. (r) Spectrum of polyethylene glycol. (s) Spectrum of polyethylene glycol. (t) Spectrum of polyethylene glycol. (u) Spectrum of polyethylene glycol. (v) Spectrum of polyethylene glycol. (w) Spectrum of polyethylene glycol. (x) Spectrum of polyethylene glycol. (y) Spectrum of polyethylene glycol. (z) Spectrum of polyethylene glycol.



may also be observed at frequencies which are combinations of frequencies of molecular rotation and vibration. The qualitative usefulness of an infrared spectrum lies in the fact that the set of observed vibrational frequencies characterizes the absorbing molecule.

Qualitative chemical analysis. Infrared spectra can be used for the following purposes:

1 To identify pure chemical compounds by comparison of the spectrum of an unknown with previously recorded spectra of pure compounds. Catalogs of spectra are available and in addition there are practical methods for storing the information in the spectra on punched cards which can then be used for fast comparison of unknown and known spectra.

2 To identify the constituents of simple mixtures when the spectra of the possible constituents are known.

3 To show the presence of a group of atoms, a so-called functional group, in a molecule of unknown or doubtful structure. It has been known since the 1890 that certain groups of atoms—for example a methyl group (CH_3), a carbonyl group (CO), a nitrate ion (NO_3^-)—have characteristic absorption frequencies that are relatively independent of the rest of the molecule or crystal in which the group occurs. Literally hundreds of such group frequencies are known.

Quantitative chemical analysis. There is a quantitative relationship between absorbance and the number of absorbing molecules; thus the quantitative analysis of mixtures by infrared means is feasible. It is also possible to determine how much of a functional group is present in a mixture or in an impure substance though limitations are set on this procedure by variations in functional group absorbance. The infrared method is not particularly sensitive; the ultimate limit in detection and measurement of minor constituents being in the range $0.1\text{--}1.0\%$ except in unusually favorable cases. Precision of measurement is often as good as 1% of the quantity being measured but may be considerably worse. Infrared methods are especially useful in determination of isomeric substances and in measurement of constituents of a chemical equilibrium.

Determination of molecular structure. Structures of molecules can be determined to varying degrees of refinement from infrared spectra. If only a few independent parameters (interatomic distances and bond angles) are required to specify the structure, as is the case with a small symmetrical molecule, these can be evaluated from the moments of inertia of the molecule which can in turn be measured from rotational frequencies usually observed as fine structure in a vibrational absorption. The structural parameters of carbon dioxide, methane, ethylene (see Fig. 2a), and ethane, for example, have been evaluated with high precision from their infrared spectra.

If the number of parameters is too large to be determined in this way, it may nevertheless be pos-

sible to draw conclusions about the molecules despite without measuring its size. The number of vibrational frequencies which appear in the infrared spectrum is related to the molecular symmetry and it is often possible to infer the symmetry from the observed spectrum. Such inferences are more reliable if they are based on combined data from both infrared and Raman spectra. See RAMAN EFFECT.

It is still possible to say something about the structure of large molecules of little or no symmetry from their spectra if one is content with a statement about the presence or absence of various functional groups. The organic chemist often finds such statements very valuable. The nature of functional groups in the molecules of high polymers or of natural products such as the steroids can be determined from their infrared spectra and this permits information about their structure to be obtained.

Study of the solid state. The infrared spectra of solids give information about modes of vibration of crystal lattices about hydrogen bond vibrations in crystals held together by such bonds and about electronic energy levels in semiconductor and superconductors. Hence infrared spectrometers are often used by solid state physicists and increased use of infrared method in this field can be expected especially as techniques for the spectral region $10\text{--}200\text{ cm}^{-1}$ become more widely available. See SPECTROSCOPY. [R.C.L.]

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Inhibitor (chemical)

A substance which is capable of stopping or retarding a chemical reaction. To be technically useful such compounds must be effective in low concentrations usually under 1% . The type of reaction which is most easily inhibited is the free radical chain reaction. The study of inhibitor action is often used as a diagnostic test for free radical chain character of a reaction. Vinyl polymerization and autoxidation are two important examples of the class. Another reaction type for which inhibitors have been found is corrosion, particularly in aqueous system. The economic importance of corrosion inhibitors can scarcely be overestimated. An understanding of inhibitor action depends on an understanding of the process which are to be interrupted.

Inhibition of vinyl polymerization. This type of inhibitor action must be considered in terms of the accepted mechanism for the polymerization process which may be summarized as

Inhibition of corrosion Metallic corrosion in conducting media is electrochemical in nature. Local electrolytic cells are set up because of the presence of impurities, crystal lattice imperfections or strains within the metal surface. The result is dissolution of the metal from the anodic regions. Corrosion inhibitors now in use may operate at the anodes or the cathodes or provide physical protection over the entire surface.

Anodic inhibitors These are mild oxidants which reduce the open circuit potential difference between local anodes and cathodes and increase the polarization of the former. Sodium chromate and sodium nitrite are most commonly used. The former is used in air conditioners, refrigeration systems, automobile radiators, power plant condensers and similar equipment. Sodium nitrite finds special use in the protection of petroleum pipelines. It is effective even on rusty mild steel. An extension of the nitrite type is the use of nitrite salts of secondary amines as vapor phase inhibitors. The inclusion of a salt such as dicyclohexyl ammonium nitrite with a packaged steel object provides effective protection against corrosion.

Cathodic inhibitors Compounds such as calcium bicarbonate and sodium phosphate in an aqueous medium deposit films on metal surfaces which provide physical protection against corrosive attack.

Organic inhibitors These are usually long chain aliphatic acids and the soaps which are derived from them. Adsorption of these compounds on metal surfaces gives a hydrophobic film which protects the metal from corrosion by many agents. As little as 0.1% of palmitic acid, for example, is sufficient to protect mild steel from attack by nitric acid. See ANTIOXIDANT CATALYSIS CORROSION FREE RADICAL POLYMERIZATION [FHS]

Ink

A substance used for writing, marking, drawing and printing which is transferred by several methods to a wide variety of surfaces such as metal, fabrics, wood, glass or plastics. Inks consist of a vehicle or carrying agent and a colorant that is evenly dispersed throughout the vehicle. In the United States inks are produced to the value of \$300,000,000 annually.

Writing inks Writing inks are known to have been used as early as 2000 B.C. For many years they were made from tannins and galls obtained from bark or nuts but with the spread of literacy their varieties increased. Even inks used for type writer ribbons may be considered as a special form

for writing. Modern writing inks are composed chiefly of aqueous solutions supplemented with gums or glues and dye colorants to which small quantities of pigments may be added. The writing ink industry is distinct from other classes of ink manufacture.

In the modern office duplicating machines are in common use. Technically they are not writing machines yet they do use ink specially suited for each particular class of machine. Proper inks are usually supplied by the maker or distributor of the machines.

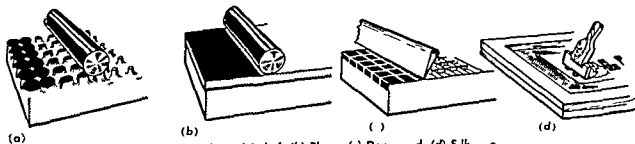
Marking inks These are the successors of man's efforts to make his mark with any medium available. In shipping departments of industry and elsewhere inks are used with rubber stamp pencils or special brushes to mark a great variety of surfaces of wood, metal and fabric. There are many varieties from liquid to solid which may be composed of a water, alcohol, oil or wax vehicle with either dye or pigment colorants.

Printing inks Printing inks are used on printing machines from the small job press to large high speed multicolor presses which produce printed matter in great volume and variety with four printing systems to transfer thousands of types of ink onto hundreds of different types of surfaces.

For instance, a book may be bound in cloth cover using a bookbinder's ink printed on a planer press; it may have illustrations printed with process inks on a cylinder press and bound with the text pages or on a slip cover. The text or reading matter may be a book class of paper and run on a rotary press with a book ink. Such combinations are not unusual. Inks may be labeled with different names designating either the class of ink or the end use.

There are four distinct printing systems for transferring ink to paper or other surfaces: (1) letter press or relief printing in which the type or illustrations are above the surface to receive the ink from distributing rollers; (2) lithography in which ink is transferred from a level or plane surface; (3) intaglio in which ink is transferred from a depressed surface (includes rotogravure, gravure, copperplate printing, steel die embossing and metal etchings); and (4) silk screen in which a roller squeezes ink through a piece of silk stretched on a frame to paper or card underneath the frame (Fig. 1). See PRINTING PLATE.

Each system requires different inks for different presses and papers, but the printing ink industry is generally a custom prescription one. This re-



qu res a formula made f r th parti ular tra sfer methods v hicles adapted f r press operation nd pigment color nt co ding to th r end u e The formula s refu lly reco d d by we ght of the i gred ent a d i g n number R eat rder for addi on l or lat r su mu t be exa t t the mall est tolera c espe ally for u n label and pack ag p nt ng

Printing ink vehicles The p ntng ink form la f r the ch cle w ll be pr pared to suit th follow ing nd t (1) the p ntng sy t m u ed (2) th cla nd speed of the press (3) th dry ng process r q u ed (x d at o penetrat on evapora on o g l at o o p p r t o n) (4) the class nd t x u e of th u f e e to be printed (5) the at f the y ment r q u ed d (6) any pe i f f net o f the p nt ed m tte which may p pl i both ch cle and p gment.

The m s ch les sed are m e al o l h at bod ed l n eed va hes with e n tenc es fr m V S/O (ery th i l to No 9 (v ry iscou lik at cky m l es) h naw d e tton eed o r rilla l a o l l glyc ls and h yd o c r b n s l e n t s These a d othe m y be u ed s ngly or m de into r n t res by the addi on f d r r s esins, gums r th r l d t t es to pro ide good w k ng qual t es on the pr s Addit es r u ed t m p o fin i h h d e f l x b l t y f th k f l m V r n h i gred ent may b prep ed by d s l ng ook g mix g or d i p e r n r by runn ng them to g th thr ough a nk mill Sp c al e e pur h ed by the k m k e f m t de uppl r

Colorants Th nk film i very thin (bo t 00001 i) T nsp r e y s as eces ary f r some p p o es pact f r th r s The same film w ll ch nge i lo pp a n when sed n d f le nt u f e s su h s book and ated pape s bec e f th l ght sc t t r ng of u i t x u e l ght penet i n t th fiber or r t o n s the h t n e x f th h t

F r me t manu f ctu a repl ated ch m l nd t y wh h s ppl es mo t p nt gink color i f l th g n s and rganic p g m n t s a e sed p g m n t s f a t t o l w ll d f f r i n m f th foll w ng w y p a t c l z e wetta b l n p e c h g r t y p a t y o l o t r e n g th dry i g t m i d f e t h l e a d e s t n e t t e k f m l ght h t alk a l a d g r s e s fat a d w s

R k p g m n t bon bla k nd t g e d n t y blue v o l t t m b ed Am g th wh t p g m e n t t i a m d de s e d f t h i t k a d b l e f i e a l m n a h y d t n d r e n d k i n d f e t e n d r a

Th sam f m l y f p g m t m y be prod ced i e s l h d e s Chrom y ll w run f m p m eow n th g n d t g l d e n n th red ide Ch f f m l e s e d - l h i l l d e s su g t r e m l l d t e s y ll w - ch m a, H a z, b e n f h l i n t l l u M l r r e f l x p t h l o e y a p e w l g r e n - p h i l l o e y a t m i t e f l l w d l l d p p l e s - p h i l a l o y n n e m i r f r e d d t t u

All pigment must be thoroughly d per d and r finely m ll d on roller mill colloid mill or b l l mills to pre ent reagglomerat on See D r f P I G M E N T

Special inks New inks are u ed f r printing on u w s p r n t pape s New black for met op litan dailies i a thin l iqu d ink f eque tly del e ed by tank truck and pumped nto torage tank f om wh h it i pumped to the p e s For the we kly newspaper with smaller pres es a l ghtly th cker on i tency s u ed th s m y be del e ed i n k i t s o d rums Blacks are made with mineral il and carbon black a d dry by p n e t r a t o n

The e of new pape col r h s i c e a d v e r y ap dly a t e n d wh ch w ll c n t n u e l n k s u d r e n m e d r u o f p r e s (R O P) o l o Comic colors de i g n t e i n k s u e d t p r i n t the com p l e m e n t s of new pape a well as comic booklets usually n s p e c i a l p r e s e s Their properties are s m l a r to th o e f n e w s b l a c k

Bookb i d e r s i n k u s e d f r p r i n t n g c l o t h r p l s t u b o o k c o v e r r e h e a v y i c o u i n k s m a d e f r m l i s e e d o s y n t h e t c v a r n i s h e s T h y d r y b y o x i d a t i o n

C o e r k n k s a r e the opaque i k s u e d f o r p r i n t n g o c o l o d p e r s

Th c l o r s u e d f o r t h r e e o f o u r o l o r i l l u s t a t i o s k n o w n a s p r e s s i k s m a y b e u s e d o n a l l p r i n t n g y e m s. C o l r s s e l e c t d a r e r d y e l l o w and blue wh ch wh e n p o p e l y r u n p p a t o r e p r o d u e t h t i r e c h r o m a t i c s p e c t r m

M e t a l l i c i n k s a r c m p o e d f a s p e c i a l a m h n t o w h i c h a e m e d f i l y f l a k e d l m u m p o w d r t o r e p r e s e n t s l e a d c m b n a t o n s f h s a d p p r s h k e t o e m b l g l d

H e t s e t i n k s n a m d f o r a d r y n g m e t h o d a r e c m p o e d f s p e c i a l f a c t s o f m i n e r a l l w i t h s y n t h e t c r e s s w h c h r m a i n s t a b l e a t r m t m p e a t u r e b u t e v a p r a t e r p i d d y w h n r u n o v e r a h e t n g n i t t l e d t o the press at t e m p e r a t u r e s o f a b o u t 1500 F T h e y a r e s t e d f o r l a r g e e d i t i o n s f m g a z i s a d c a t a l g

M i s t u e t i n k d p n d o n a n the d r y n g p o e e T h e y h v e c h l e s o f g l y o l s and a l c o h o l - s o l u b l r e s i n w h i c h p r p t t o the p g m e n t c o n t i t w i t m o i s t u r T h e r h i e f u e s o n w r a p p n g s a d p a c k a g e s w h e f e d m f o m d r y g o d r i m p o r t a n t

F l x o g a p h i c i n k (f r m l y n a m e d a l i e i n k s) e d n p e l p e s e w i t h r u b b e r p r i n t n g p l a t e s T h e y a e b n g e d n r s n g l y e p c l l y f p e c k g w a p p i n g u h a f o l t a p a e t p l s t u f i l m c p p r i b g m a n e s T h y a r e o m p e d o f l p h t h l l r o t h e o l a t i l e o l e n t s a d n o w c n t a n p g m e n t c l a t T h e y a r e l i q u d s n t e n c y and d r y b y e v p t i o n

M i g n t i n k a e a n e w t y p o f k n o w r e i g a t t e t n a e u e o n o r i n g w t h e l e t r o n i c e q p m e t

Lithographic inks I t h g r a p h y w a s i n v e n t e d b y A l i S e l i d i n the e l g h t e e n t h c e t u r y a d h a h w n g r e a t p g e s n e 1900 b e a u e o f the m t r o d u c t i n f t h e t r y f f t p e and the a p p l a t i o n o f p h o t o g r a p h y n t h m k

system has great ver atility for u e on financial printing such as stock certificates bond and checks It is used for advertising matter di plays billboards fine art reproduction greeting cards packages and metal decorating The inks u ed are of heavy viscosity made chiefly from linseed oil varnishes or combination of mineral or other oils with synthetic resins and pigments that are re ist ant to water They dry mostly by oxidation In the tin decorating indu try for containers and signs the drying process is speeded up by the applica tion of heat and the ink film requires greater flexi bility

Offset inks are litho graphic inks u ed on a press which transfers the ink fir t to a rubber blanket and then to the printing urface

Dry off et i a relief variant of the off et system The plate used is given an etch which produces a slightly raised surface The ink is run on an offset pre s without water This process is used fre quently on check backgrounds or sales slips for protective purposes against the use of ink eradi cators or erasers

Intaglio inks Intaglio is the printing system in which the image is depre sed below the surface There are four cla ses rotogravure gravure die stamping and copperplate Rotogravure is used ex tensively for newspaper supplements catalogs and packaging

Rotogravure inks are liquids that are filled into tiny wells (as many as 40 000 per square inch) etched on a plate or cylinder A scraper blade re moves the surplus ink from the surface and the ink is transferred to the paper drying by evapora tion The vehicles are chiefly hydrocarbon olvent and alcohol

Copperplate inks and die stamping inks used for per onal and busine s stationery are buttery pastes in consistency Both require special varnish prop erties for their u e Because the plates are cut much deeper the film of ink transferred is much thicker

Silk screen system The silk screen process is well adapted for display card advertising but has

many other u e When fluore cent pigments are u ed brilliant colors are obtained The proces s slow but mechanization is increa ing for longer run A piece of ilk i stretched onto a frame The nonprinting areas are blocked out and the ilk i squeezed through the ilk with a roller to the pa per or card underneath The inks are of buttery consi tency with a film of good thickness which dries by oxidation

Manufacture Printing ink manufacturers main tain their own laboratories staffed by chemi ts and color matcher for formula de elopment produc tion control and te ting One of the in truments for te ting the tackine of ink for pre qualities is the Inkometer (Fig 2)

A Printing Ink Re earch Bureau i operated at Lehigh Uni ersity Bethlehem Pa and is up ported by the National A ociation of Printing Ink Makers New York See PRINTING [C.R.C.]

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Inland waterways transportation

Nearly 90 of the national intercity freight tonnage moves over the 29 000 miles of navigable inland wa terways in the United States This y tem of natu ral and improved rivers and man made canal is the most extensive highly developed and efficient in the world The equipment used in the towing trade i modern specialized highly refined and include powerful towboats barges of all ort and the late t in navigational aid The large t tonnages travel o er the Midwestern network of river but ub tan tial volumes of bulk cargo also move in the Ea t and Far West

Generally peaking inland waterways tran porta tion is lower in cost than any other mode of tran portation except pipeline

Many American methods of large volume towing are now being practiced in ther countries where water transport alway of key importance had ne e l andled uch great quantities of cargo with uch powerfil and labor aving marine equipment

Commodities moved Coal petroleum product and and g avel nd grain are the principal com mod tie larged o r the American inland vater ways system but many other products are al o moved on the ri er in la ge quantitie Most impor tant among the newer cargoe are a ast variety of chemicals m ing in pe ally de igned tank lurge This increa e in chemical t nnage la taken up much of the lack created by the wicel many petroleum product to pipeline for tran portation

Small r lots of cargo le s than a lurge l ad c mpre e only a small pr t n f t l t l t nng mo ed alth ough se eral towing c n ern in the

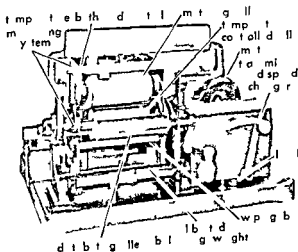


Fig 2 A Inkomet (Thw g Albert I stume t C)

locks to be increased from 600 ft to 1200 ft in length

2 The Columbia and Snake rivers which when development is completed will be navigable to Lewiston Idaho and studded with huge multipurpose dams

3 The Missouri River which was to be fully canalized and raised from a 5 ft minimum depth to the standard Midwestern 9 ft minimum depth

4 The Illinois Waterway where locks were to be made two way to ease current congestion and accommodate additional traffic generated by the opening of the St Lawrence Seaway

5 The Warrior Tombigbee Waterway in Alabama where lock capacity was to be increased

6 The Trinity River in Texas which was to be canalized to create a 9 ft channel from the Gulf Intracoastal Canal as far inland as the Dallas area

The renaissance of the inland waterways as the heavy haulers of industry is a fairly recent phenomenon in American history. In the early part of the twentieth century river traffic was almost eliminated by railroad competition. However in the 1920s as government canalization programs progressed and new machinery (particularly diesel engines) and new equipment found their place on riverboats the industry revived and has been growing in importance ever since (see Fig 3)

Machinery and equipment Prime mover of the inland waterway boats is the marine diesel engine equipped with a reverse reduction gear. This gear enables the diesel to operate at maximum high rpm efficiency while turning the propeller at its far slower but most efficient speed. See MARINE ENGINE

The riverboats of the Midwest are basically rectangular in shape some as long as 200 ft and are characterized by heavy pushing knees (vertical pushing braces) forward and propellers encased in Kort nozzles aft. The Kort nozzle basically a funnel like cylinder surrounding the propeller can increase the propeller thrust by as much as 40% in certain cases. See PROPELLER MARINE

Towing in Eastern and Far Western waters is handled largely by conventional tugboats smaller in length and beam than the riverboats and built with stem type bows, molded hulls and rounded sterns.

River barges fall into three categories—open hopper, covered hopper and tank barge. They are designed respectively to handle either resistant hard goods, vulnerable cargo and liquid products.

Originally almost all barges were designed with a rake (overhang) fore and aft and this is still the most efficient design when barges are towed singly. However as large fleeted movements of barges became common on the rivers many new barges were constructed as integrated or semi integrated vessels. They are designed for high towing efficiency in tows of many barges. An integrated tow will have one lead raked barge with a square stern, a number of square low and square stern barges and finally a trailing barge with a raked stern. This type of

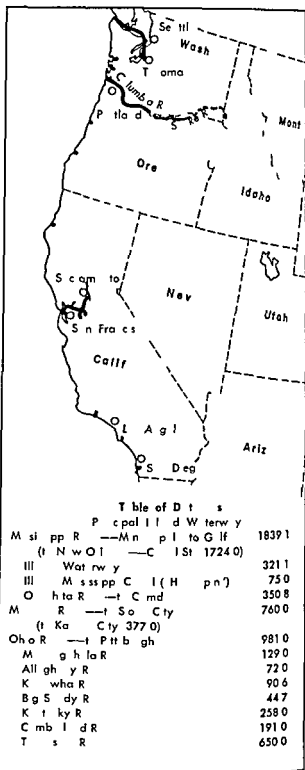
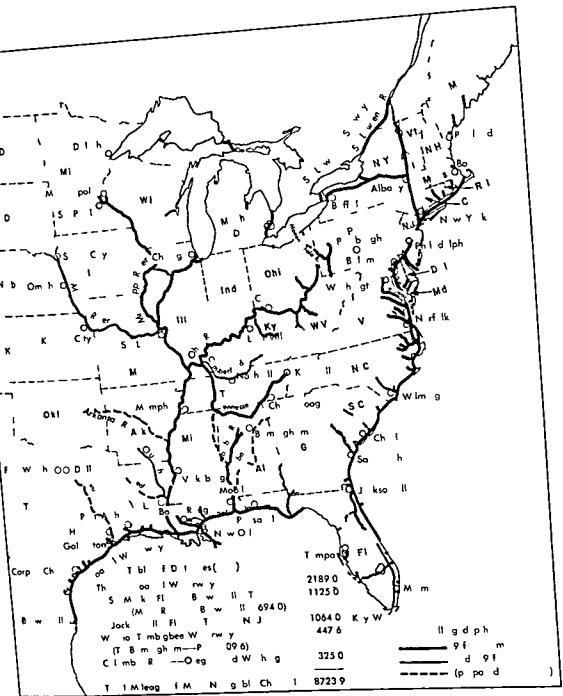


Fig 3 Commercially navigable inland waterways of

tow presents a single underwater surface like a single complete vessel and towing speeds can be proportionately higher. However barges with too square ends are extremely unwieldy if it becomes necessary for them to be towed individually.

A semi-integrated tow is composed of single-raked barge arranged square end to square end. This causes comparatively few breaks in under water continuity of the hulls and yet enables the barges to be towed singly when necessary.

Types of carriers Cargo is moved along the American waterway by three types of water car-



th U d St t (Am W t r w y Op t l l)

(1) th mm r r r g l t e d by the
l i t t Comm e Comm d w t h p b
l h e d t e s (1) th g l t e m p t r i e
l m t e d t r r y g l y b l k g o e s f
c o t h l p k g b l e l b e l b l e a t e
(g l d o s) a d (3) th p a t e a r
t w e d o p e t e d by the comp y w h o e
f g h t e d

Tonnage Th m t f g m d 1957
391,289,000 t f t t l f 114,561,000,000
t m l e s E t m t e s f 1958 a r l g h t l y h g h e
S C t D M R i t t K E R I C [B W]

Inoculation

Th p r e s f t o d c i g a m o o r g m o s u
p o n o f m o o g a i m t l t m d m
The med m may be (1) s o l t n f n t n t r
q e d by th o g s m l t f n t t
p l a g a r (2) l l p n (t e c u l t u e)
(3) e m b r y t e d g g u l t (4) m a l s f
m p l r a t, m o u e g u a p g b m t e r m o k y
b r d s, o h m n b g W h e n a m l a r e u s e d t h
p r p o e a l l y t h a t t f t h m m u o l o g
i l d f s e g t t h e o r g a m T h i s f o r m

locks to be increased from 600 ft to 1200 ft in length

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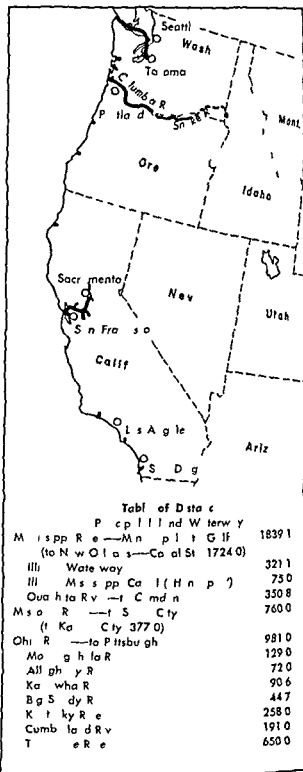


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A combined tow is composed of single raked barges arranged square-end to square-end. This causes comparatively few breaks in under water continuity of the hulls and yet enables the barges to be towed singly when necessary.

Types of carriers Cargo is moved along the American waterway by three types of water car-

ph ru il on and rel ted c mpound and an array f vacuum f es l. frequently th hallm rk of a labo story f r synth t c mo gan c chem try

Organometallic compounds Metalloorganic compound n itute a borde l ne area of tudy ly g bet een s rg nuc and orga chema try U til 1900 although a con d r bl number of metallo-rgan c mpou d wa known th we e all de- ed fr m m tal that bel ng t the pr nc pal fam il es n th period iable no stable de i atu s of obg up m tal r t an t n m tals had been e- pared despite m ny ttempt n w a large n mbe f met lloorgan c c mpou nds f th t an m n nd bgr up el me t with cy f p nt d e e (CH) a d w th aromat c hydroca bons u h as benzene (C₆H₆) h been s n the red B ca th c m pou d so m nt e ti g d s at es with carbon m x d CO and unde go numero ther re c t c and beca the ex ten e of th se c mpou nd poses inte ng th ttempt al p bl m s many s ves- t gat h e e n earned the n elv s with this f ld fre ca ch lt a be nti upated that th a ea will bec me f e e gr ate ignfica e m th mo g n e ch m try f th future S e ORGANOMETAL TIC COMPOUND

Solid state chemistry The el ment and c m po nds th t f rm the subject matter of n rg n c h m try ex h b t ery wide a g f phy cal p p rtes and un the g m t from h l m th b- tan e of l west m l ng and bo l ng p s t to metal x des a l des a d t d s wh ch a mo the most fra t ry high melt ng ub tanc kn Th t dy f ld tate r a t o d c mpounds ha a med gr t mportan e s r ent s a and t th r m aj r ar f r e r h m n n rg n c h m try Unlike g eou c mp unds nd m s r ga mpou nd wh ch f ll w th law of d h n t pr po t s very l ly many ld mpou nd pr t l a ly those of th t n t n leme t ex h b t i b l ty f mposit on o as t f e- ce l d e g t d n to ch m o try When a wld mpou nd d tea f om mple t ch met e rel t i w ll i n a e ce s f ther po t l y ha ged met l at s n gatu ely h ged a n l d et cond t n the s ld fr q n l h w u f l t t p r p rtes that t m d f n h t f ld t d dev ces Solid hou lect f p r p r are a n t n of d n l ght bel ng to th gr p a d photoelec t d m es a n t red of u h ub t a c T n t t th m i t r a d ph s e ther wld t t dev es f s d ly a g mpo t the mate ls e ld mp und t d f n g il p a ed by sol d phase r e t n h gh tempe at may be f ld n th h m e f gh tempe s r h m e try h s great p l d n e e t n t ly n nect th p p a t f a n t h m t r m p r l t l t l o f th p p a t f e l t r i es u f l a t h gh tempe t r n rock try d w l techn l g r Alth gh m y r t n b t t n t proceed m l b a g the t m p r t e e n t l th i t n t e l f ad e q t

f r all p rposes and in the very rec nt p t, a n w d men io has been added by the multane- ous u e of ery h h pre ure With the equipment now availabl it i pos ble to carry out old tate r actions at tempe ature f approx mately 2 00 C (453 F) and 700 000 atm (3×10^4 p i) Under these conditi ns rd ary a bon (graph te) can be c n erted i t d amo d and m e th p su e i ct ally suffice nt to d tort the electron rh tal new vari tes f m tter can be obtained Th u t i pos ble to make a new a s ty of l ca which unlike the u al nes rea t with hydr fluoric acid t a v r y m a k d ly reduced a e Und ubtedl h h p r s ure- high temp r t r h m i t r y s e d e ned to bec me one of the mo t m p riant ar as of e e ch in inorganic chem stry

F r m a y solid state device n t f the grea t mportan e to h e ery pure m t r i a l o m a t r i a l with just th c rrect amount of mpu ty f r t an t r s t f the grea t mportan e to r- ure il c n c t a t i g the r d e of a f w parts pe h l l u o n f mpu t e s Th i c o m m o n ly a ch e d by a omb nati n f chemical and phy al procedure including zone melt ng Th prep rat on f ultra pure i o gane c mpounds i al it al in the prep ar ti n of lumi s cent and phosph e cent mate r i a l s

Geochemical aspects Many f the synth tic pr edures a ed ut at high temperatures and pre ure ha c n id able m t r t n geo hem- try Perhaps th a l e t organ c chem stry was pra t i d n connect r w th m n e al gy M n al ynthe es or the p p rati on of norgan c om- pound de t r i a l w th tho found in n ture ar m res g l y co p y ng the att n ti on of the not ga ic chem t Not n ly is th e of centific mpor- tan n xplaining the eq en e of ch m i a l eac- t on nd co d t n e p n s ble for the f r m a t i n of th m n e r i a l in nat re but many m e l d gems f indu t r i a l mporta c c n n w be v n th s ed s m e n th la g indu t a l s le d am nd uby pphure qu r t z, corund m Either high tem- p r a t u e act i s hydroth r m a l t a t i o n e a- ed t w t r at h gh tempe ratu and pre re a e m p l y e d With the ad ent of l t r a h gh p e- s re equipm nt it n w bec me f e ble to tud h m i l r e c t i n und r cond t i o n s p p r x m a t ng th e m a y m l e b low the earth s u f Such stud e can rel y b e p e t d t make a ma- jor contr buti n t the nd r i a d g of ge h m i al ph n m e n a. See HIGH PRES URE PHENO IE A

Nuclear technology The de lopm nt f n clear technol gy ha pr ovid ed gre t mpetus to mo- ga i hemistry Th fforts of th mo gan hem i t h a e bee nd pen ble to the c ful t l x a n l n u l a e g The d c v e r y f the t a n r n m lem t n of the ut t adingl y mport n t ex t n hem i t a n e h pr ovid d h t of pr bl m It has been n r y to id- pl n deta l the chemi t r y of th ct n de ele- me t i ord to d t m n e } th e new ele- m t we to be in orpo t d n t o th period t b l a d f r the immediate p a c t a l purpose of

of vaccination and quite often the two terms are used interchangeably. Both constitute a means of producing an artificial but active immunity against specific organisms although the length of time given by such protection may vary widely with different organisms. See VACCINATION.

Inoculation is the natural process of acquiring protection against disease in that most persons are exposed to some organisms at times when no severe symptoms are displayed. The protective mechanisms of the body especially antibody production are stimulated by such a mild or insignificant exposure. An example of this is the discovery that the majority of adults have antibodies to poliomyelitis present despite the absence of a history of the severe or recognizable disease form.

Inoculation may also refer to the deliberate seeding of organisms into culture media and the introduction of fermenting bacteria, yeasts or molds into various industrial processes that employ the chemical reactivity of the organisms. See IMMUNITY. MICROBIOLOGICAL METHOD. [E. C. ST.]

Inorganic chemistry

The chemical reactions and properties of all the elements and their compounds, with the exception of carbon hydrogen compounds. Inorganic chemistry is thus defined by subtraction. The chemistry of carbon hydrogen compounds forms that province of chemistry designated as organic chemistry. All the remaining elements in the periodic table fall in the domain of inorganic chemistry. The boundaries with other major disciplines in chemistry are not precisely defined, however, and it is often difficult to allocate a given topic to the field of inorganic chemistry or to physical chemistry. Physical chemistry may be defined as the application of quantitative and theoretical methods to chemical problems and is a methodology rather than a specific body of knowledge. Investigations into theoretical inorganic chemistry or the study of problems in inorganic chemistry by quantitative and sophisticated physical methods may be considered to be inorganic or physical chemistry quite arbitrarily. In similar fashion metalloorganic compounds may be considered as being either in the sphere of inorganic or organic chemistry. To an increasing extent the inorganic chemist concerns himself with problems that once were considered the prerogative of either physical or organic chemists and to day the inorganic chemist is frequently indistinguishable from the physical chemist.

Because inorganic chemistry concerns itself with 100 of the 102 elements in the periodic table its scope is very broad. Nevertheless some natural divisions exist and it is convenient to treat the subject under the headings of synthetic inorganic chemistry, theoretical or physical inorganic chemistry and applied inorganic chemistry.

SYNTHETIC INORGANIC CHEMISTRY

The reactivity of the elements of the periodic table varies enormously and over a much wider range

than is encountered in organic chemistry. Consequently the inorganic chemist must frequently employ unusual apparatus and techniques. The elements range from the rare gases which are completely unreactive and form no chemical compounds to the extremely reactive halogens and alkali metals. Fluorine is perhaps the most reactive element known; it forms compounds with all other elements except the rare gases. The study of the chemical behavior of fluorine and its compounds has been a major activity in inorganic chemistry in the last decade. Fluorine compounds are important in the separation of the isotopes of uranium, as refrigerants, anesthetics, chemical warfare agents, and potential rocket fuels, and for many other purposes. Because of the great reactivity of fluorine and the closely related halogen fluorides, special metal and plastic apparatus must be used in experimentation. Both fluorine and the important fluorine compound hydrogen fluoride attack glass, and thus the most common material of construction used by chemists cannot be used.

Another element important in synthetic inorganic chemistry since World War II is boron. The hydrides of boron were first discovered some 50 years ago but it is only within recent years that the chemistry of these compounds has been clarified. The evolution of synthetic procedures in boron chemistry is an instructive example of the method of the inorganic chemist. The hydrides of boron were first obtained by reaction of a metal boride with a solution of an aqueous acid. The procedure was very difficult and tedious and it required weeks or months of labor to obtain a few cubic centimeters of the gaseous product which turned out to be the simplest boron hydride, B_2H_6 . Many years later it was discovered that yields could be increased substantially by passing boron trichloride and hydrogen through an electric discharge but here also the yields were very low. Under the impetus of wartime urgency chemical syntheses for the boron hydride were developed. Using the readily available compound, alkali metal hydrides and boron trifluoride, a starting material, boron hydrides were obtained in very good yield. In addition to diborane, B_2H_6 , a considerable number of other boron hydrides are now known, B_2H_6 , B_3H_8 , B_4H_{10} , B_5H_{11} , B_6H_{12} , and $B_{10}H_{12}$, and many derivatives of these have all been synthesized. Compounds that contain the borohydride group, BH_4^- , have been prepared and the metal borohydrides are now very important compounds. Aluminum borohydride, $Al(BH_4)_3$, of interest as a possible high energy fuel and dimethylhydride, $NaBH_4$, is a widely used reducing agent. Many of the boron compounds react violently with air and water. It is necessary therefore to use special equipment in studying them and an all-glass vacuum system has been developed for carrying out experiments with the very reactive materials. Vacuum line techniques are widely used in inorganic chemistry for the manipulation of volatile, highly reactive compounds such as the hydride, B_2H_6 .

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for all purp es and in the very re ent past a new dmen ion ha been added by the s multane- ous u e of ery high pre ur With the qupment now available it is pos ble to carry out ol d tate reacti us at m p sture of appr ximat ly 2500 C (4532 F) a d 200 000 tm (3 x 10 p i) Under the e conditi ns ord nary carl n (graphite) an be con erted into d amond and s nce the pre sure s a tu ally suffi ent to d t the electron orbital new riet e of m tter can be obtained Th is it is pos ble to make a new va iety of s l ca whi ch unl ke the us l on r acts with hydrofluoric acid at ery m k lly redu d rate Undoubtedly high p es ure h gh temperature chem stry is de tined to b come one of the most imp rtant a eas of re earch i norganic hem t r y

For m ny s i d tate de ce it is of the great st importan e to have v y pure mate ial or material with j st the orr t amount of impurity For tran sors t is of the g e t t m p tanc to e- c r ilico co tati n tle rder of a few parts per bill on of impuri t This i commonly achi ed by a c m b nati n of ch m l and phy cal procedu e m l d ng z e m l t ng Th j s parati on of stira- pu e no g nic compound s al o tial in the p e t a at on f lum escent and pho phore c nt mate- als

Geochemical aspects Many of the sy th ti p c d es carried ut at f gh temp rat r s and pres s ha e c n d rable atere t n g e che n s- t r y P rhaps th ea l est i o gani chem t y was p a ticed in c nne t n with m i eral gy M neral synthe s o the p e p a t ion of norga ic c m po d d nt al with the e found n natu e are i c t a ngly o upy g the atte t n f the mo- gan chem t N t only is this of c n t fic imp r- tance i e pla ng the sequen e f ch m cal r ac- ti ns nd e nd t ns re p bl for th format on f the mine al n natu but ma y miner ls and gem of indu t al mpo tance an n w be synthe d om on the l rge ind t r n cal d amond ruby applie quartz, or ndum E ther h gh t m p t u e rea t o o hyd sh rmal r acti ns ca- ried out in water at h gh temp ture and p e e a e empl yed With th d ent f l t r a h p r e e quipm nt t n w bec mes f a hle t t dy ch m al rea t i o s unde nd t i o approximat- i g t t m y m le bel w th e r t h s urf ce Su h tudies can surely be e pected to make m- jo contribut n to the u der t nd g of geochemi- l p h e n o m S e HIGH PRESSURE PHENOMENA

Nuclear technology Th d elopm nt of cle- t chn lgy h pr vided a great mpetus to mor- gan c hem t r y The eff sts of the n rgan chem- i t ha e be n undi pen able to th ce ful ut li- zati on f nucle ergy The d vety of the tran uran um elem t s one f the out and gly imp r t t ent n h m cal sci e has pro d d a h t of problem It has been n e e ary to ex- p l re in d t l the ch m t r y of the t nide le- m nt in o de to d t r m i ne how the e new le- ment we t be mco p rat d t o the per odic- tabl and fo the mmed ate p t al purpo e of

devising suitable methods for the isolation and purification of plutonium and other transuranic elements. The development of solvent extraction procedures for separating the actinide elements has been applied to other inorganic ions and has had widespread repercussions in inorganic chemistry. Nuclear technology has also provided the impetus for the development of other separations procedures, for example the separation of zirconium and hafnium and of the rare earth elements from each other and has generally served to reinforce the traditional interest of the inorganic chemist in separation procedures.

Applications in organic chemistry Before leaving the discussion of these aspects of inorganic chemistry it may be instructive to point out one of its interesting by-products. Many of the most important advances in organic chemistry that have occurred since 1900 have resulted from the introduction of inorganic substances as reagents. The introduction of magnesium metal gave rise to the vast corpus of Grignard chemistry and of metal carbonyls to Reppe chemistry. Other inorganic substances that have found important use in organic chemistry are selenium for dehydrogenation reactions, lead tetraacetate for selective oxidation, aluminum chloride as a catalyst for alkylation, acylation and ring closure reactions, anhydrous hydrogen fluoride for diazotization, nitration, sulfonation and isomerization reactions, and most recently lithium aluminum hydride for selective reduction reactions. Within a few years of its discovery some 1500 research papers were published on the applicability of lithium aluminum hydride to organic syntheses. Among the host of inorganic compounds there must be many of great utility in organic syntheses.

THEORETICAL INORGANIC CHEMISTRY

For a long time inorganic chemistry was essentially preparative and descriptive, but modern inorganic chemistry frequently is difficult to differentiate from physical chemistry or chemical physics. The modern inorganic chemist has an intense interest in the structure of chemical compounds. From a knowledge of the interatomic distance and other geometrical data, valuable inferences may often be drawn regarding the nature of the chemical bonding involved and thus of chemical behavior. All modern methods of structure determination are employed: Electron diffraction, x-ray and neutron diffraction, infrared and ultraviolet absorption spectroscopy, magnetic susceptibility measurements, and nuclear and electron paramagnetic resonance are all employed for structure determination. For the case of nonstoichiometric compounds, Gilbert's phase rule studies, x-ray crystallography and various electrical measurements find particular application for structural investigation. The study of chemical structure has shed new light on many classical problems. For example, elucidation of the true nature of phosporic compounds has provided a firm foundation for the new chemistry of phos-

phorus now in the process of formulation. Another classical structural problem has been that of the boron hydrides. Simple valence bond theory was inadequate to account for the forces holding the molecule together. Recently it has been concluded that a new type of chemical bonding called a three-center bond because two hydrogen atoms and a boron atom are held together as a unit is crucial in the structure of the boron hydrides.

Bonding There is an intimate relation between structural studies and a detailed interpretation of chemical bonding. A knowledge of the geometry of the molecule contributes to an understanding of the forces involved in chemical bonding and conversely for certain classes of compounds a knowledge of the nature of the chemical bonding helps define the geometry of the substances. In addition to the classical forms of valence, crystal field or ligand field theory has become very important in theoretical inorganic chemistry. It is essentially an extension of the electrostatic theory of chemical force. Based on molecular orbital theory, crystal field theory considers the effect of the local electric field on the energy levels of the various orbitals involved in chemical bonding. For certain combinations of field and orbitals, splitting of the energy levels occurs and certain orbitals gain an extra energy of stabilization. The effect of the crystal (or ligand) field may be reflected in a distortion of the molecule so that crystal field theory is becoming increasingly important in the interpretation of structural distortions found in the crystal structure of solids. See CHEMICAL BINDING.

One of the most important areas in which crystal field theory is being applied is in the study of coordination compounds. Crystal field theory has enjoyed considerable success in predicting the stability of complexes of different metals with different ligands and in explaining magnetic and absorption spectra of complex compounds and in predicting rates and mechanism of reaction of complex compounds. The stereochemistry of coordination compounds is a classical preoccupation of the inorganic chemist and the study of the complex coordination compounds of the transition elements has been one of the most active and fruitful areas of endeavor in chemical research since 1900. The factors involved in the relative stability of the large number of coordination compounds formed from the various transition elements has occupied the attention of many inorganic chemists and despite the great advances which have been made in recent years, particularly by the application of crystal field theory, the problems are still far from settled. Research into the factors involved in the stereochemistry, stability and reaction of coordination compounds thus continue as a leading activity of inorganic chemistry. The implication of such work extends far beyond the field of inorganic chemistry. The importance of coordination phenomena in photosynthesis, reproduction, enzyme reactions, chemotherapy and other biological phenomena

Reaction kinetics The mechanism of inorganic reactions has not been fully understood as much as that of organic reactions. The study of inorganic reactions is still in its infancy, rapidly being rectified. Organic reactions generally proceed with the help of the molecules of water, inorganic reactions usually characterized by a complete disruption of molecular structure followed by reorganization to form the products of the reaction. Organic reactions are more complicated than the inorganic reactions. A detailed study of much reaction mechanism is not possible. Despite this, the study of inorganic reactions is not only a subject of interest but also a subject of importance. The results of this study are of great importance in the development of inorganic chemistry.

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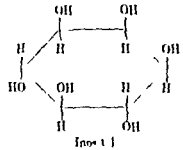
APPLIED INORGANIC CHEMISTRY

The production of inorganic chemicals has increased rapidly in the last few years. The production of inorganic chemicals has increased rapidly in the last few years. The production of inorganic chemicals has increased rapidly in the last few years.

Inorganic chemical synthesis The inorganic chemical synthesis is a branch of chemistry which deals with the synthesis of inorganic compounds. The inorganic chemical synthesis is a branch of chemistry which deals with the synthesis of inorganic compounds. The inorganic chemical synthesis is a branch of chemistry which deals with the synthesis of inorganic compounds.

Inositol

A six-membered ring compound consisting of six carbon atoms and five hydroxyl groups. It is a sugar alcohol. It is a sugar alcohol. It is a sugar alcohol.



It is estimated by the method of... It is estimated by the method of... It is estimated by the method of... It is estimated by the method of... It is estimated by the method of...

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clarified solution is concentrated until mositol crystals Purification is accomplished by carbon treatment and recrystallization

In spite of its seeming simplicity the process is expensive because product yield is extremely small in comparison to total material handled in the process [N E A]

Insect control biological

Biological control has been technically defined as the action of parasites predators or pathogens on individuals of a host or prey population resulting in premature death or reduced fecundity Some authorities would limit the meaning of the term to man's use of organisms to control other organisms The term microbial control is frequently used to indicate that type of biological control in which microorganisms exert the control and is one of the applied phases of the field of insect pathology Although all manner of living organisms are included in these concepts most of the present knowledge in the field of biological control is based on the effects of parasites predators and pathogens on small vertebrates weeds and insects in particular on the latter Although the role of biotic factors in the suppression and regulation of insect populations was perceived during the nineteenth century a broader appreciation of the potentialities of the role and use of biotic factors has been a twentieth century development

In nature beneficial insects and microorganisms are constantly taking their toll of pest populations In an increasing number of instances man has learned to introduce or manipulate biological control agents in such a manner as to reduce the density of a pest population to a point below that at which economic injury to man's interest occurs Classic examples include the introduction into California of the vedalia beetle from Australia to control the cottony cushion scale on citrus the introduction of certain chrysomelid beetles into Australia and the United States to control St John's Wort or Klamath weed and the use of milky disease bacteria to control the Japanese beetle in the eastern United States An example of an unusual form of biological control is the release of male screw worm flies sterilized by x ray which mate with females that then lay infertile eggs

The basic principle of the biological method of controlling pests involves the knowledge that there exists in nature a balance between the pest and its enemies and that this balance may be altered or shifted intentionally in such a manner as to decrease the numbers of the pest Pests are frequently unintentionally brought into an area and enabled to flourish without being accompanied by their natural enemies Biological control scientists seek out usually in the pest's native habitat the missing natural enemies and then introduce them into the recently invaded area

The injudicious use of chemical insecticides sometimes upsets the natural parasite-host balance thus permitting the pest to recur in destructive numbers or relatively minor pests in the absence of or

through the destruction of their natural enemies may become serious pests

In addition to their role as microbial control agents in nature or as introduced biotic agents endogenous microorganisms may also be used as microbial insecticides that is as spray or dusts This method appears to be especially feasible with bacteria and viruses but similar use of fungi protozoa and nematodes may also be possible Ordinarily resistant stages (spores) of the microorganisms are used when disseminating them Microorganisms may also be introduced into susceptible host populations where they become established and remain active for long periods of time They may also be used in combination with chemical insecticides and with parasites and predators

The principal advantages of biological control methods is that they do not leave toxic residues and they may be more lasting in their beneficial effects Furthermore microbial control agents not only are nontoxic to man animals and plant but usually do not harm the parasites and predators of the pest or beneficial insects such as the honey bee See ENTOMOLOGY ECONOMIC INSECTICIDE

[E A S T]

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Insect physiology

The study of the functional properties of insect tissues and organs The adaptations enabling insects to live on land are often strikingly different from those found in other animal groups such as the higher vertebrates Accordingly insect physiology makes a comparison of physiologic adaptations in insects which have analogous functions in other forms Insects because of their diversity abundance and wide distribution exert great influence on the general character of life on land Insect physiology therefore contributes to the broad study of terrestrial ecology Insects assume economic importance as crop pollinators disease vectors and pests (see ENTOMOLOGY ECONOMIC) Insect physiology is also concerned with the control of certain insect species and with the modification of insecticides In spite of their specialization insects have basic physiologic mechanisms common to most forms of life Some of these mechanisms because of the unique manner in which they are displayed in the insects are especially amenable to experimentation

DEVELOPMENT AND GROWTH

Development Fertilization is internal Unfertilized eggs normally develop into males in many ants bees and wasps and into females in summer generations of aphids Eggs develop externally in most cases Early cleavage in the egg is limited to the nuclei

Postembryonic growth is discontinuous being interrupted by 3-8 or more molts During each intermolt period the insect feeds gains in weight

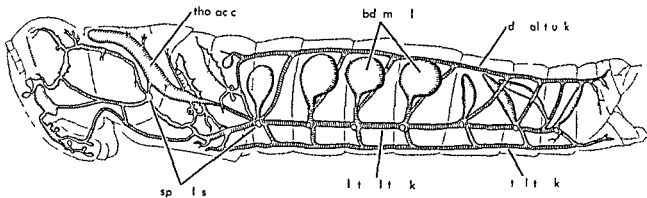


Fig 1 Grasshopper respiratory system showing spiracles tracheal tubes and air sacs of the left side

(From T I Storer and R L Usinger General Zoology 3d ed McGraw Hill 1957)

Digestion and nutrition There is little of nutritive value that is not attacked by insects. Diets range from fluids such as plant juice and blood through conventional animal and vegetable foods to cellulose wax and wool. The digestive tract is degenerate in the adults of some species in which feeding is limited to the immature stages in which feeding is limited to the immature stages. Mouth parts vary greatly with diet (see INSECTA).

Conventional digestive enzymes are produced by the salivary glands which secrete silk in some species and by the midgut epithelium. Mucus is absent. In many insects the gut contents are enclosed in a thin chitinous sac, the peritrophic membrane which is continuously secreted by the midgut. Products of digestion diffuse through the peritrophic membrane before absorption by the gut epithelium. The hindgut absorbs water from the digestive waste and plays an active part in metabolism and regulation. It is also used as a propulsive and respiratory organ in dragonfly larvae which draw water in through the anus and then force it out again.

Keratin, the protein of wool and feathers, is digested by the larvae of some beetles and moths. The disulfide bonds of keratin are changed to sulphydryl groups by strongly reducing conditions in the midgut. Beeswax is the normal diet of larvae of the wax moth. Symbiotic bacteria as well as enzymes secreted by the gut may play some part in its digestion. Wood digestion is accomplished in termites and some roaches by symbiotic bacteria and protozoa always present in the gut.

In spite of their varied and often unusual diet, the nutritional requirements of insects are fairly constant. Ten amino acids, the B vitamin complex and choline are essential for growth. Essential nutrients lacking in the diet are often supplied by symbiotic microorganisms. Adult flies may exist for long periods on sugar alone but not egg production is possible. The fat body is the main storage site for nutritive materials.

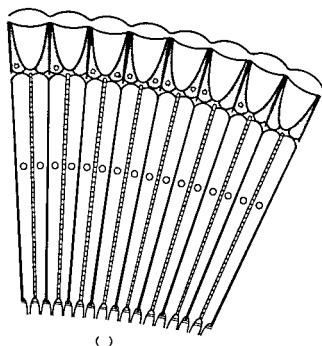
Symbiotes A number of insects harbor microorganisms within or among the cells of peripheral tissues as well as within the cavity of the gut. The symbiotes include protozoa, fungi, yeasts, bacteria, and bacteriophage. In some cases microorganisms appear to be essential to the life of their

insect host as in the termites with their intestinal protozoans. In others they contribute to host nutrition and growth by increasing the availability of nutritional factors such as certain vitamins. Still other insects show no obvious defects when deprived of their symbiotes.

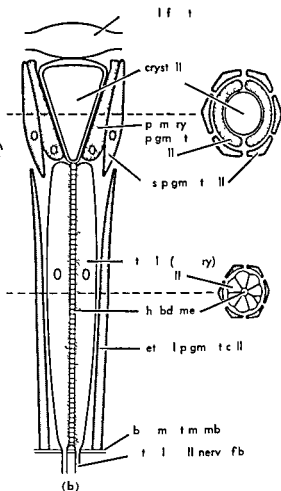
Certain bacteriophage organisms are cultured within specific cells grouped in a large organ, the mycetome, or scattered throughout the fat body. Infection of the next host generation by these intracellular symbiotes may be accomplished by migration of certain of the host cells to the walls of the ovary where the symbiotes are released and penetrate the developing egg cells. Intestinal symbiotes may be picked up when the host insect feeds on contaminated food. In other cases the eggs of the host become contaminated at the time of oviposition.

Circulation The blood is propelled forward at low pressure by a dorsal heart. It is discharged into the body cavity and filters back to the heart through spaces between organs and tissue. Accessory hearts may promote the blood flow in elongate organs such as antennae, legs, and wing. Since the blood has little or no respiratory function, the circulation may be stopped for hours without untoward effects. The heart rhythm is probably neurally generated as in other arthropods. This means that the heart originates in the activity of nerve cells in the heart wall from which nerve impulses are transmitted to the striated heart muscle. In some larvae the direction of the heartbeat is reversed at certain times.

The blood is commonly clear, yellowish, or green. Blood cells are variable in form and numbers. Some have phagocytic properties and may aggregate during blood clotting. The osmotic pressure of blood varies widely in different species and under different conditions. The diameter of the blood vessels range from 10 microns in capillaries in the insect and in land vertebrates to less than 1 micrometer in the most enormous forms such as the silkworm larvae. The protein content is similar to that of vertebrates. Blood alcohol is the same as in the insect. The time for the urea acid content is usually high. The major carbohydrate is glycogen, a non-reducing sugar. See CIRCULATION.



(a)



(b)

Fig 3 (a) Vertical section (daggermatic) of a portion of a compound eye (b) Detail of a single ommatidium

(From R. E. Snodgrass, Principles of Insect Morphology, McGraw-Hill, 1936)

also be resolved by rhabdomeres in adjacent ommatidia. Similarly the visual field covered by groups of ommatidia on the anterior aspects of the right and left compound eyes often overlap one another.

Although the visual acuity or resolving power of the compound eye may depend in some degree upon ommatidial angle, the overlapping of ommatidial fields indicates that the mechanism is certainly more complex than this. Visual acuity of insects is inferior to that of man, being about $\frac{1}{10}$ in the honeybee and about $\frac{1}{1000}$ in the fruitfly. Form perception is necessarily limited by visual acuity; it is manifested in activities such as the learning or recognition of foraging territory by honeybees, wasps, and dragonflies.

Light energy reaching the rhabdomeres is absorbed by a visual pigment. In some unknown way the photochemical reaction which attends absorption of light elicits electrical changes in the photoreceptor cell bodies and in their axons (see PHOTO RECEPTION). The latter enter a complex system of optic ganglia which comprise a large portion of the brain.

Insect eyes respond to wavelength from the near ultraviolet into the red. Within this broad range, some insect eyes can distinguish qualitative differences among various wavelengths. Behavioral studies show that honeybees recognize four col-

ors, each representing a fairly wide range of wavelengths: ultraviolet 300–400 millimicrons ($m\mu$), blue 400–480 $m\mu$, blue-green 480–500 $m\mu$, and yellow 500–650 $m\mu$. A sensory basis for color vision has been demonstrated electrophysiologically but not behaviorally in compound eyes of flies and cockroaches and in dorsal ocelli of honeybees. How widely color vision is distributed among insects remains to be discovered.

In some of the species two or three dorsal ocelli occur which contain many retinulae grouped beneath a single undivided cornea. They do not form an image. Their behavioral role is rather obscure, though in the cockroach they are involved in the maintenance of a diurnal activity rhythm.

Senses of taste and smell. The senses are considered together since they both depend upon the action of specific chemicals. The common distinction between taste and smell becomes difficult to make when aquatic animals are considered. The problem revolves about the question as to whether the chemical reaches the sense organ in the form of a gas in solution.

The sense organ of taste are fine cuticular hairs that often serve in addition tactile receptors. A minute receptive area at the tip of each hair is reached by fine nerve processes from one or more sense cells at its base. Chemoreceptive hairs occur on the feet, antennae, and ocelli, as well as on

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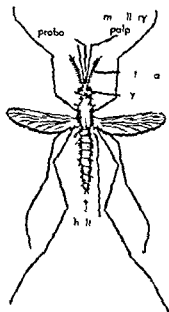


Fig 4 Musca A ph l p h w g h l t
f m e O E g C l l e g E tom l py Ma m l l
1942)

insects these scolopophorous organs are especially modified for hearing. The cuticle at one attachment becomes very thin and is exposed to air borne vibrations. Specialized ears of this type are found on the legs of grasshoppers antennae of mosquitoes abdomen of cicadas and abdomen or thorax of certain moths. They are sensitive to change in sound intensity but do not appear to discriminate changes in pitch. The rate at which short sound pulses are repeated appears to be an important aspect of sound to insect ears. Moths can detect sound frequencies of 100 kilocycles per second or more. Insect ears serve to warn of a predator's approach (for example moths can hear the high pitched cries of hunting bats) or to locate the opposite sex. The majority of insects are very sensitive to surface vibrations. These are detected by fine sensory hairs and campaniform organs as well as by scolopophorous organs.

SOUND AND LIGHT PRODUCTION

Sound production Insects make sounds by chewing on hard materials by vibration of wings or special membranes by rapid expulsion of gas from the tracheal system or digestive tract by tapping on the substrate with legs abdomen or head and by snapping or rubbing wings legs or other body parts against each other. Many of these sounds are incidental to activities such as feeding or flight but an increasing number are being found to have communicative significance in insect behavior.

The songs of grasshoppers crickets and cicadas are familiar to all. Grasshoppers move a filelike structure on the leg against the edge of the wing crickets draw a scraper on one forewing over a file on the other cicadas vibrate a pair of drumlike membranes on the abdomen by means of special

muscles. The sounds produced are complex but consist generally of a series of pulses upon which is superimposed the higher resonant frequency of the vibrating organ.

The pulse frequency pulse grouping pitch damping of vibrator and other characteristics of these sounds are often highly species specific. Some closely related forms can be more easily recognized by their songs than by any other means. The informational content of these songs to other insects depends on differences in pulse frequency and grouping but not on differences in pitch. Male crickets have a repertoire of songs for different behavioral circumstances such as courtship or encounters with other males. In most cases insect songs serve to bring the sexes together or as part of the courting behavior.

Sounds produced by the wingbeat or by vibration of the flight muscles are common and often intense. In mosquitoes they play a part in sex recognition. Bees produce a variety of sounds by vibrating their flight muscles. Some of these may have behavioral significance. Clicks caused by sudden movements of body segments and hissing sounds from escaping air may play some part in predator evasion.

Light production Special photogenic organs occur in the larvae and adults of a number of beetles. They are commonly found on the ventral surface of the abdomen beneath a transparent sheet of cuticle as in the common American fireflies *Photinus* and *Photinus* but they also occur on other parts of the body. The light may be yellowish green bright green orange or red in color. It can take the form of a steady glow of pulsations or of brief flashes 0.075 sec in duration.

Photogenic organs range from loose undifferentiated cells to an organized tissue of closely packed photogenic cells backed by a whitish re-

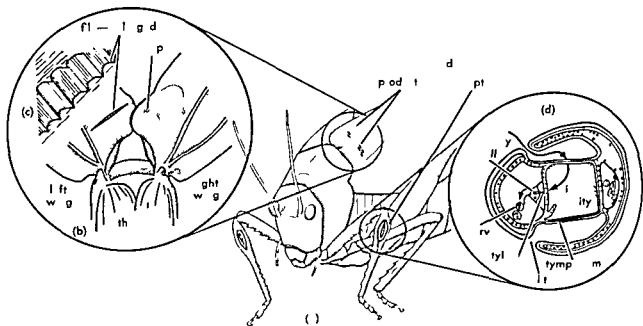


Fig. 5 (a) Grasshopper showing location of structures for sound production and reception. (b) Under surface of forewing with file and scraper which produces sounds. (c) Enlarged detail of file. (d) Cross section of foreleg showing sound receptor. (e) Path of sound waves (b) Kennerly and Campbell's (old arrow) (F. M. T. S. R. A. D. L. U. G. I. Z. Logy 3d ed. McGraw-Hill 1957).

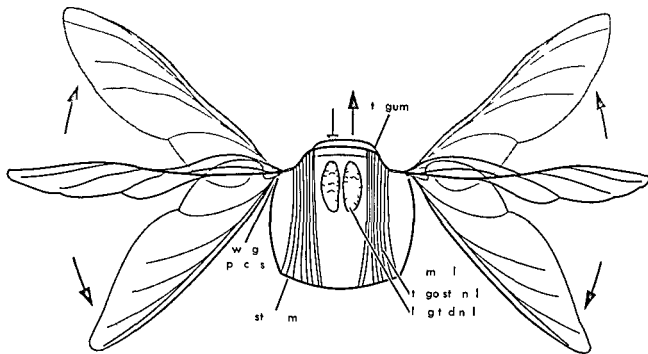


Fig 6 W g movements in the flight of an insect
(From T I Storer and R L Usinger General Zoology
3d ed McGraw Hill 1957)

In insects with two pairs of wings the hindwings flap in air rendered turbulent by movement of the forewings and their aerodynamic efficiency is thereby impaired. In the butterflies, moths, bees, and wasps the hindwings have become reduced in size while in the flies they are lost. They may be coupled by hooks to the forewings so as to produce the effect of a single moving air foil. In beetles the forewings (elytra) serve only as covers for the hindwings which provide the power for flight.

A unique characteristic of insect flight is the high frequency at which the wings may beat. This ranges from 5 beats per second in large butterflies to as high as 1000 per second in small midges. Most grasshoppers, dragonflies, and moths have wingbeat frequencies of 15-50; medium sized flies 100-200; bees 200-300; and mosquitoes 400-500 per second. Since the indirect flight muscles contract and relax once during each beat, the higher frequencies imply an unusual muscular performance.

With a few exceptions insects beating their wings less than 50 times per second have flight muscles similar in structure and physiology to the tubular muscle found in the legs and other appendages. In the case each motor nerve impulse from the nervous system brings about one muscle contraction and one ensuing wingbeat. High frequency wingbeat is associated with fibrillar muscle. One physiological peculiarity of this muscle is that it contracts a dozen or more times for each motor nerve impulse. The impulses appear to generate a critical tension at which the muscle becomes untalented to oscillate and does work. In other words the rhythm of fibrillar muscle is myogenic and independent of motor nerve impulse frequency. This oscillatory property of fibrillar muscle is not fully understood but it depends upon a critical tension generated by nerve

impulses in addition to critical inertia and damping of the load. The elastic properties of the thorax and in some cases a mechanical click mechanism in series with the muscle and its load. When the muscle tension surpasses that of the spring in the click the latter goes abruptly from the up to the

down position and the muscle goes suddenly slack. This slackening may destroy the muscle's ability to develop tension thus permitting the click to return to its original position. It is not entirely clear how this facilitates the oscillatory behavior of fibrillar muscle. A click seems to be involved in the flight mechanism of some flies and in the sound producing system of cicadas. In the latter a stiff convex membrane (tymbal) is vibrated in and out 100-500 times per second by a fibrillar muscle attached to its inner surface.

The air speeds of insects rarely exceed 15-20 mph although some dragonflies may reach speeds of about 50 mph for short periods. A tethered fruit fly is capable of 2 hours continuous flight and 1 500 000 wingbeats before exhaustion. Tethered locusts are capable of 5-8 hours of unbroken flight. Little is known about the distances free flying insects can travel nonstop. Favorable winds are undoubtedly responsible for reported trips of several hundred miles.

The immediate energy source for short flight is sugar. An exhausted fruit fly is capable of further flight within 30 sec of feeding on sugar solution. Fat reserves are drawn upon during the longer flights of locusts. Bees may forage several miles for nectar which contains about 10% sugar. Long trips are uneconomical however in the case of the sugar used in fueling their return flight.

The energy expenditure during flight is about 2000 kcal/kg of muscle per hour 10 times that of human heart muscle and twice that calculated for

hummingbird flight Sugar oxidized with n and r t flight muscle by enzyme c nta ed in the nu mer smitoch nd sa The xyg n on unption dur 1 g flight m y b 50 t mes th when at rest and the temperatu e n the th rax may r i 10-15C above the est g temp atur

Flight can be initiated in most insects by l s of co t t between the feet d th gr und Light i t n ty flicker odo s and the relat e w nd pa ng er th e t body all play a part n ma n ta n g nd steer ng flight acti ty Stab lization of p th d yaw t nd ne du ng flight s sited by inert al rgy o pi torques ctng o the mov able he d of d ag nses the h lte es of fies and p bly o oile ppendag s See FLIGHT

NERVOUS SYSTEM

This ateg ry nclud s the n rve mechan sm of tran m on s d integ at n ly ng between the s n rga s and the mu s or gland Th nerv ou system ca not p pe ly be con sidered apart f m th i p t and i put y tem s ne they pro ide th pathways int i fr m the uter world and the m whe hy t act ty ex hited a be h i f w r the nerv u y t m does m h m r tha me ely c ect ens o gans nd mus cl Th s illo tated by what may b called its pe m e p p rty Throughout lfe the n rv s tem s both ded by e nt u but fluct u g b r rge f en o y nrv s mp l e f om ma n g s s y t nly a mall pat f t l put be le rly trac d t up t n the form f beha i r respo Smil l th nrv s y t m s co nected w th all k t i m les y t i p p o e be ha al e p n e m d p of h g hly e r t ed p t n and seq n e f m le on tra l Th the permi ve g lly f the ervo s y t m c b l k n d e r ship r l m tation f th p ad of r e x t a t o p f i p thwa

In e r t well s ted for tud of l h and th p bl m Th r b ha o th gh e mplex f tu tly f l l w i coty p d a d i born patte n M t of th rvo s y t m l k that of the in steb at p ead out n a h i of ga gla ly g l i t h e t r l d f the b dy O l the

bra n is dor al ly ng in the head in close c ntact w th the eyes and antennae Ea h pair of ventral gangl a i a emia ton mou center f r the a e organs and mu cle f t body s gment Long tudi nal conne t e j in gangl a and l r a in to provide pathway for the integrati n of their separate ac tivities into a unified pattern of behavior

Th ee general approaches i a e pro ided inf rma ti n on the phy ology of the nerv u s y tem Th surgi al approach or ablati n draws conclusi on f om the change in beha ior that f l l w the cutting of nrv r the r m val of part or all of specif c gangl i The electroph y l g cal appr act aims to i olate and m ap in detail specif c nts in nrv al i an m i n s d integration Th method dep nds ip n prec i stim lat on of nerves and upon detect n of the lectrical sign of nrv s ac ti ty The b havi ral appro ch lea e the animal i tact and ob rves its reacti ons i mea used en i rrom ntal changes See NERVOUS SYSTE i (INVER TEBRATF)

Ablation Th urg cal appr ach g es back to the ancient Greek who n ted the abil ty of a head less in e t to p rform many c mplex acts It h s re ealed th following facts about the in e t nervous sy tem A sngle i lat d body egm nt bear ng a pair of lgs is capable of a ariety of respo e Th e n lud gra p ng by the feet when they en ount an obje t w d r w al of the l g from a x i u s i m u l u s alternat rhythm c leg move ments a in walk g and re piratory m v m nt Some of these act itie are mo inten e after neu al is lat n f segm nt others are less so Oth p p o e a t n that may l e e n t n ou n isolated s g m nt or groups of segm nt are e pu latory mo m nts in the pravg m nt egg lay ng in a n mber of in e c t nd th sting ng mo ement of bees

In the intact in e c t these a t i t e tak their pr p r s equence in the total p tte n of beha ior th ough the a t on of ex t a t ry and inhibi ry r v o u i flu nces r h g the local g ng l i a f m the bra n nd oth r nrv e e n t r s Th s leg and f o t mo ement a e coo d nated in the six legs o a t p o d c f l t i locomot by en ry nd

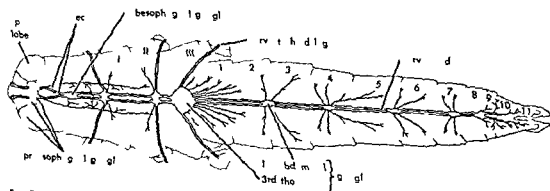


Fig 7 G h p p r v y t m d l w
of m t i s t d r l u v G i z l g y
H H 1957)

nervous interactions of the three pairs of thoracic ganglia. The brain, in addition to serving as a receiving and coordinating center for the input from eyes and antennae, determines the pre-ence and direction of locomotion by a combination of excitatory and inhibitory neural actions on the thoracic centers. The local activities of copulation, egg laying and stinging are suppressed most of the time by higher nerve centers and only released and steered by them under appropriate stimulus situations. The mechanisms of posture and stance due to a steady contraction of certain muscle groups have much the same origin in semi-independent local nerve mechanisms subject to coordination and regulation from higher centers.

Electrophysiology The electrophysiological approach depends to a greater extent upon a knowledge of the finer internal structure of the nervous system; this is information that is much needed concerning insects. Sense cells just below the cuticle send nerve fibers (axons) into their segmental ganglia. Axons from motor nerve cells within the ganglia leave the nerve cord to terminate in muscles and glands. Internuncial nerve cells within the ganglia connect sensory and motor nerve fibers in a dense central region known as the neuropile. Points where sensory fibers influence the activity of internuncials and the latter in turn influence motor nerve fibers are known as synapses.

Nerve impulse transmission along in ect axons is basically the same process as in other animals. Each impulse appears to be a digital event with a high safety factor. Special giant fiber systems with axons as much as 40μ in diameter (large mammalian axons are 20μ in diameter) are concerned in rapid responses such as escape from predators, although most insect nerve cells are about the same size as in larger animals. It follows from this that the total number of nerve cells in the in ect nervous system is considerably less than in vertebrates, and even large muscles such as the jumping muscle of the grasshopper are supplied with only two or three motor axons.

As in all animals, synapses are important as limiting mechanism in the nervous system because of the greater in stability of impulse transmission from one nerve cell to another as compared with impulse transmission along an axon. Synaptic transmission is readily modified in various ways by previous activity and by changes in the chemical environment of the nerve cells concerned. An impulse arriving at a synapse may excite or inhibit the recipient nerve cell or it may modify previous activity or influence the response to impulse arriving over parallel synapses. For the end and other reason, synapses undoubtedly play a major part in the permissive properties of the nervous system.

There is strong evidence that recipient nerve cells are acted upon by chemical substances or mediator released at the synapse formed by impinging nerve fiber. Acetylcholine identified at synapse in other animals appears to be the mediator at in ect synapse. Nicotine is toxic to in ect nervous system because of its acetylcholinergic action

on their synapses. A large dose of nicotine acting generally on a number of synapses serve to upset the permissive properties of the nervous system and cause general muscle paralysis. An important group of modern insecticides the organophosphorus compounds inactivate an enzyme in nerve tissue whose normal role is to destroy acetylcholine as soon as its action at the synapse is completed. Persistent acetylcholine at the synapses causes discoordination and spasms.

Transmission of nerve impulses along axons and at synapses can be detected as electrical changes. These electrical changes are due to rapid mass movements of ions particularly sodium and potassium along diffusion gradients across nerve cell membranes. It follows from this that critical concentrations of the cations in the fluid surrounding nerve tissues are of some importance. Since the concentrations of the cations in the blood may fluctuate with diet, the ganglia and nerves of insects are separated from the general circulation by a special sheath that appears to regulate the penetration of salts and other substances into the nervous system.

Behavior It is impossible to make many generalizations about in ect behavior since the activities of in ect are as varied as their body form. The most that can be done is to point out a few facts of in ect biology that provide clues to the kind of behavior likely to be encountered.

Insects living in temperate climates are essentially seasonal in their activities. The eggs of a species are all laid at the same time of year and one or several generations in which all the individuals of a population are at about the same developmental stage are completed in the course of a season. This means that in most in ect there is little or no contact or interaction between immature stages and adults and that each stage with its own specialized way of life may last for only a few days or weeks.

Thus the nature of most in ect life cycle leaves neither time nor opportunity for behavior patterns to be acquired through emulation of experienced individuals. This means that most of the highly complex behavior patterns associated with orientation, foraging, feeding and reproduction are innate and inelastic as is the unfolding of body form which appears complete in all detail as soon as there is coincident with the appropriate developmental stage and the releasing stimulus situation. The adaptive perfection and beauty of the elaborate sequence of action made by foraging wasp and bee tempt speculation about foresight and intelligence but there is no evidence that these actions are determined or guided in any way other than that seen in the development of a pattern of colored callosities on butterfly wings.

The inevitability of most in ect behavior does not mean that in ect cannot learn. In fact learning and memory of a high order are part of many behavioral patterns in the in ect world.

In many artificially designed maze in ect learning why a fish was poor performer. However a literary wasp has a striking aptitude for learning.

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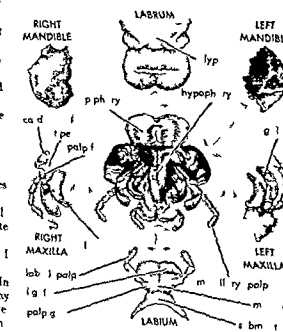
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o l o g y r e e d 1953

Insecta

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1951)

tain the primitive condition of winglessness are placed in the subclass Apterygota which evidently descended from winged ancestors in the subclass Pterygota. There is a difference of opinion as to the number of orders of Insecta. Some authorities recognize as many as 36 others less 30 would be a conservative estimate. Each of the items classified in the outline will be found as a separate article.

Insecta

- Subl Apterygota
 - Order Phlebotomina
 - Order Collembola
 - Order Diplura
 - Order Thysanura
- Subclass Pterygota
 - Division Hemiptera
 - Order Orthoptera
 - Dermoptera
 - Plecoptera
 - Isoptera
 - Embioptera
 - Order Odonata
 - Order Anisoptera
 - Order Zygodontomyia
 - Ephemeroptera
 - Mallacostraca
 - Anoplura
 - Psocoptera
 - Zygodontomyia
 - Hemiptera
 - Hymenoptera
 - Thysanoptera
 - Division Hymenoptera
 - Order Mecoptera
 - Neuroptera
 - Lepidoptera
 - Diptera
 - Siphonaptera
 - Coleoptera
 - Hymenoptera

ANATOMY

The head, thorax and abdomen are the three main divisions of the insect body.

Head. The head bears the mouth and associated appendages as well as the antennae and eyes. The mouthparts are composed of four closely united structures: the labrum (upper lip), the mandibles, the maxillae and the labium (lower lip). The mandibles are heavily sclerotized structures which crush the food. The labrum covers the mouth opening while the maxillae manipulate the food and the labium covers the under surface of the mouth. Within the buccal cavity or cibarium is a tongue-like structure, the hypopharynx. Basically the mouthparts are modified for chewing; however, there are various departures from this type among insects.

Various glands discharge their contents into the cibarium. The most important are the salivary glands lying in the thorax and opening internally through a common duct at the base of the labium. These structures, which produce the salivary secretion, are of great importance in those species serving as vectors of disease-producing organisms. The best known product of these structures is the silk of the silkworm.

Antennae. The antennae, which usually consist of several segments, are very slender organs attached

to the head in front of and between the eyes. They are present in all but a few insects, even though sometimes reduced to vestiges of a single segment. They are the principal organs of smell, but in some insects they have an auditory function and probably have in all insects a tactile function.

Eyes. Two kinds of eyes occur: compound and simple. The compound eyes are commonly large; in some insects they comprise the greater part of the head, but in others may be small or lacking. They are composed of from 1 to an estimated 28,000 facets of clear epidermis, each with a light-sensitive structure beneath it. Each of the simple eyes, known as ocelli or stemmata, has a single facet overlying the light organ. There may be several of these in some insect larvae, but adult insects never have more than three.

Thorax. Usually connected to the head by a distinct membranous neck, the thorax is composed of three segments that are quite closely united but generally recognizable. The first of these, the prothorax, is commonly the most distinct and bears one pair of legs. The second and third, called respectively the mesothorax and the metathorax, each bear two legs and two wings. Generally these segments are quite closely united to form a sort of box which carries the muscles for the legs and for the wings. The wings are always undeveloped in immature forms and the legs commonly so.

Legs. The legs are divided into six sections or segments. The basal segment or subcoxa is flattened and expanded. It forms the side walls of the corresponding segment of the thorax. The second segment, the coxa, forms at times almost a true ball and socket joint with the subcoxa, thus permitting movement in any direction. The third segment, called the trochanter, is very small and quite often is divided into two parts. The fourth segment, the femur, is invariably the largest and longest. The fifth, the tibia, is shorter. The tarsus, the next segment, is commonly divided into five or less smaller parts, with the terminal one commonly bearing a pair of claws. All the parts are actuated by a common muscle. The legs are modified in many ways for swimming, digging, running, crawling, leaping or clinging to the hairs of other animals. Although some parts may be absent, legs are always formed upon the basic pattern described.

Wings. In many respects wings are the most important structures of the adult insect body (except for mayflies, immature insects do not have wings). The way in which wings develop is one of the bases for broad insect classification into orders, families and even smaller groups. So precisely are they associated with particular groups that an insect can frequently be recognized on the basis of a single detached wing. Knowledge of fossil insects depends largely upon the wing, because they are among the more readily fossilized parts of the insect body.

Wings may be likened to cellophane sacks that are pressed flat at maturity and which have wires in the opposing surfaces that stiffen their structure. All cellular structure underlying the surfaces has

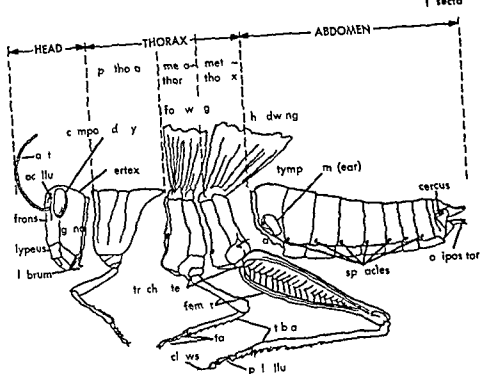


Fig 2 Outl f b dy f grasshopp l t l w D st ct d U f l l ct 3d d MG w-Hll
(F m C L M t l f W P F l t d R L M t l f 1951)

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Insecta fossils

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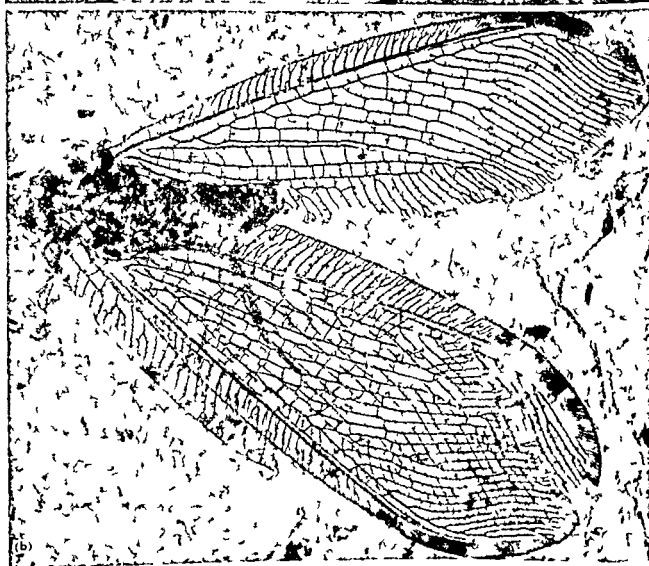


Fig 1 Fossil from Moche of Colombia (a) Podysipsepho Scudder Lepidoptera (b) Lithomyia of Mocho (Columbia) of Neuquén

pe and to living roach. The early insects were less specialized than any other known insects and are usually thought to have been close to the ancestors of the winged insects.

The insect found in Permian rocks (formed about 220,000,000 years ago) represents a far more diverse fauna than that of any other period in the earth's history including the present. The extinct orders that existed in the Carboniferous Period survived into the Permian and in addition several new orders were represented. Along with the huge dragonfly-like insect (Protodonata) were such minute insects as the bark louse (Psocoptera) and the megalopteran (only 3.2 mm). The fossils show about an equal representation of the extinct orders of the Carboniferous and some relatively specialized living orders. Adding to this diversity were several extinct orders not found in Carboniferous strata. The living orders represented in the early Permian include such types as the dragonflies (Odonata), mayflies (Ephemeroptera), bark louse (Psocoptera), Hymenoptera (true bugs) and scorpionflies (Mecoptera). The presence of the coelocera is especially interesting because the living species have a complete postembryonic development characteristic of all of the most highly specialized of living insects. True beetles (Coleoptera) and stoneflies (Plecoptera) appear in Late Permian deposits.

Mesozoic. At the beginning of the Mesozoic Era the order of fossil insect changes significantly. The contrast between the arthropod fauna of the Early Permian and the relatively diverse one of the Triassic is as great as that between the fauna of the Triassic and the Recent (present) periods. The extinct pre-Triassic dragonfly species died out by the end of that period. None of the other extinct orders of insects survived in deposits later than the Permian.

The insects found in Jurassic strata comprise a fauna much like that of the Triassic except that the megalopteran families are represented. In general such families occur in the orders that we well developed in the Permian, as the Odonata and Hymenoptera. Notably absent are the Jura were the weevil, in particular the bee and syrphid fly. By the beginning of the next period, the Cretaceous, the flying plants had become tabular. The probability of the type of insects associated with these plants promptly followed. Unfortunately, only a few insects are known from Cretaceous rocks.

Cenozoic. In this is a more abundant tertiary deposit than any of the former ones. The insects have with them a high percentage of living genera and species. In the Eocene and Oligocene times, the Jurassic. The Permian and Triassic. The insects of the Tertiary are generally more abundant in making a small comparison of the genera and species. Extinct insects are represented by the remains that the most of the tertiary insects have taken place in the tertiary Tertiary are greatly with the present fauna.



Fig 2. Fossil insect (a) Holarctian Scudder, Mecoptera; (b) Mecoptera; (c) Mecoptera. From the collection of the British Museum, London.

family of insects concerned. For example, about half of the insect genera found in the Baltic amber (the Baltic amber) are living genera, whereas in the case of the bees only a single amber genus is still living. Several species of the Bittern ants are found in the Baltic amber from living species.

Significance. The study of fossil insects has a great significance in the study of the evolution of the insect world and of the relationship of the insect world to the development of the earth. A detailed study of the fossil insects provides a great deal of information on the evolution of the insect world and on the development of the insect world.

tigations of living insects. There is however no fossil evidence bearing on the question of insect origin. The oldest insects known show no transition to other arthropods. Morphological and developmental studies however have indicated that the ancestors of the insects were terrestrial arthropods probably related to the Symphyla. Although the time of that origin is not directly demonstrated in the rocks, the fossil record suggests that it was at least as far back as the Mississippian Period (Lower Carboniferous strata).

The fossil record combined with morphological studies of living types shows that insects have passed through three major evolutionary steps. The first of these was the development of wings as simple but functional outgrowths of the thoracic wall which could not be folded back over the abdomen when the insect was at rest. The dragonflies and mayflies constitute the only living order that represent this stage in insect evolution. The second step was marked by the evolution of a complicated wing articulation which enabled the wings to be folded back over the abdomen at rest, and by the presence of immature stages resembling the adults. The grasshoppers and their relatives (Orthoptera), the true bugs (Hemiptera) and similar living orders belong to this stage. The third step was the acquisition of a complicated postembryonic development with an immature stage (larva) very different from the adult, as in beetles and true flies. The fossils show that insects passed through these stages before the beginning of the Permian Period, some 225,000,000 years ago, when land-inhabiting vertebrates were only starting their evolutionary history. See INSECTA. (F.M.C.)

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Insecticide

A material used to kill insects and related animals by disruption of vital processes through chemical action. Chemically, insecticides may be of inorganic or organic origin. The principal source is from chemical manufacturing, although a few are derived from plants. Insecticides are classified according to type of action, as stomach poison, contact poison, residual poison, systemic poison, fumigants, repellents or attractant. Many act in more than one way. Stomach poisons are applied to plants so that they will be ingested as insects chew the leaves. Contact poisons are applied directly to insects and are used principally to control species which obtain food by piercing leaf surface, and withdrawing liquid. Residual insecticides are applied to surfaces so that in contact with them they will pick up lethal dosage. Systemic insecticides are applied to plants or animals and are absorbed and translocated to all parts of the organism, so that insects feeding upon them will obtain lethal

doses. Fumigants are applied as gases or in a form which will vaporize to a gas to be inhaled by insects. Repellents prevent insects from coming in contact with their host. Attractants induce insects to come to specific locations in preference to normal food sources.

In the United States about 500 species of insects are of primary economic importance and losses caused by insects range from \$4,000,000,000 to \$8,000,000,000 annually.

Inorganic insecticides. Prior to 1915 large volumes of lead arsenate, calcium arsenate, paris green (copper acetoarsenite), sodium fluoride and cryolite (sodium fluoaluminate) were used. The potency of arsenicals is a direct function of the percentage of metallic arsenic contained. Lead arsenate was first used in 1892 and proved effective as a stomach poison against many chewing insects. Calcium arsenate was widely used for the control of cotton pests. Paris green was one of the first stomach poisons and had its greatest utility against the Colorado potato beetle. The amount of available water-soluble arsenic governs the utility of arsenates on growing plants, because this fraction will cause foliage burn. Lead arsenate is safe in this respect, calcium arsenate intermediate and paris green the most harmful. Care must be exercised in the application of these materials to food and feed crops because they are poisonous to man and animal, as well as to insects.

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tigations of living insects. There is however no fossil evidence bearing on the question of insect origin: the oldest insects known show no transition to other arthropod. Morphological and developmental studies however have indicated that the ancestors of the insects were terrestrial arthropods probably related to the Symphyla. Although the time of that origin is not directly demonstrated in the rock, the fossil record suggests that it was at least as far back as the Mississippian Period (Lower Carboniferous strata).

The fossil record combined with morphological studies of living type shows that insects have passed through three major evolutionary steps. The first of these was the development of wings as simple but functional outgrowths of the thoracic wall which could not be folded back over the abdomen when the insect was at rest. The dragonflies and mayflies constitute the only living orders that represent this stage in insect evolution. The second step was marked by the evolution of a complicated wing articulation which enabled the wings to be folded back over the abdomen at rest and by the presence of immature stages resembling the adults. The grasshoppers and their relatives (Orthoptera), the true bugs (Hemiptera) and similar living orders belong to this stage. The third step was the acquisition of a complicated postembryonic development with an immature stage (larva) very different from the adult as in beetles and true flies. The fossils show that insects passed through these stages before the beginning of the Permian Period some 225 000 000 years ago when land inhabiting vertebrates were only starting their evolutionary history. See INSECTA [F M C]

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Insecticide

A material used to kill in insects and related animals by disruption of vital processes through chemical action. Chemically in pesticides may be of inorganic or organic origin. The principal source is from chemical manufacturing although a few are derived from plants. In pesticides are classified according to type of action as stomach poisons, contact poisons, residual poison, systemic poisons, fumigants, repellents or attractants. Many act in more than one way. Stomach poisons are applied to plants so that they will be ingested as insects chew the leaves. Contact poisons are applied directly to insects and are used principally to control species which obtain food by piercing leaf surface and withdrawing liquids. Residual in pesticides are applied to surfaces so that in effect touching them will pick up lethal dosage. Systemic in pesticides are applied to plant or animals and are absorbed and translocated to all parts of the organism so that in insects feeding upon them will obtain lethal

does. Fumigants are applied as gas or in a form which will vaporize to a gas to be inhaled by insects. Repellents prevent insects from coming in contact with their host. Attractant induce insect to come to specific locations in preference to normal food sources.

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(Talpidae) based only from South America Australasia, and Madagascar See EUTHEPIA MAMMALIA [DDDD]

Insectivora fossils

Fossils of insectivores are referred to two groups on the basis of the structure of the lower jaw. The first group is composed of insectivores in which the infraorbital foramen is large and the tapetal artery is the major source of blood supply to the brain. These are known as the Lipotyphla or Insectivora proper. All living insectivores except the elephant shrew (Macroscelididae) and treeshrew (Tupaia) are modern late Cenozoic and a few early Cenozoic and possibly Cretaceous insectivores belong to this first group. The second group is generally more primitive and is primarily early Cenozoic in known occurrence. Living members have an infraorbital foramen and the blood supply to the brain is typically multiple. The stapedial artery is not as important as in the lipotyphla. Plesiomorphic characters and macrocephaly are denied for the early representatives of this second group sometimes called the Menotyphla.

Lipotyphla. The Lipotyphla the ancestry of the hedgehogs (Echidae) has been traced back to the Oligocene of Europe with unquestionable still more primitive ancestors have been tentatively identified as early as the middle Eocene in the United States. Clearly, the families are known as early as the Cretaceous time. These forms are closely related to the ancestral Menotyphla known to us. The phylogenetic relationship of the hedgehogs has always been European. All but the earliest record of the family in North America is represented by the fossil material. The family was reached South America by Australia both of which were land during most of the Cenozoic. In addition, the Dromedary Shrew had reached the middle Cretaceous of Europe (Fig. 2).

The Solenodontidae and Neophodontidae are fairly closely related to the Lipotyphla but not as closely related as the Lipotyphla. Oligocene Mesophoridae which may be identified as the family of the shrews is a fossil record of the family in North America. The family is identified in the West Indies in the earliest Cenozoic. In North America the Oligocene genus (Aptemodonta and others) previously thought to have given rise to them are now known not to have done so.

Shrews (Soricidae) have been traced back to the late Eocene (Saturniidae) and prior to that their ancestry merges with that of hedgehogs. Fossil forms differ little from their modern counterparts in known structure except in the external subfamily Heterosoricinae in which the jaw is shorter and the teeth somewhat more hedgehoglike than in other shrews. The fossil record of shrews is primarily in Europe and North America.

Moles (Talpidae) are known from both Europe and America as early as the beginning of the Oligocene but at the first known appearance the moles were already well differentiated. The moles show an approach to the hedgehog however. The characteristic tapid digging humerus is one of the most easily identified fossil bones in the continental Cenozoic record.

Tenrecs (Tenrecidae) whose recent representatives are confined to Madagascar except for the aberrant subfamily Potamogalinae of West Africa have a poorly known fossil record in the early Miocene of East Africa. They are believed to be derivatives of the ancestral Eumecidae but the details are unknown.

Another African lineage of problematical lipotyphla is the Chrysochloridae or golden moles. These have a Pleistocene record in South Africa and have recently been found in the early Miocene of East Africa. The relationships probably lie with the tenrecs though in reality little is known of the origin of the peculiar molelike animals.

Menotyphla. The second less well defined group of insectivores, the Menotyphla, contains the living elephant shrews and tree shrews of Africa and South America. These are primate-like (particularly the tree shrews) and are frequently placed in the Primates by workers who regard the hedgehogs as more primitive. The fossil record of elephant shrews goes back to the early Miocene of East Africa. Two subfamilies (Anagale and Anagalopis) have been found in the middle and early Cenozoic of Central America and a middle Paleocene North American form (Eutamias) may belong to the same idea.

Six early Cenozoic families are tentatively referred to the Menotyphla. The Lipotyphla (Lipotyphla and others) ranged from middle Paleocene to middle Oligocene in North America (Fig. 2). The Neophodontidae (Pantolestes, Aphronus and others) were large quadrupeds known from the middle Pliocene to the early Oligocene in North America and early Eocene only in Europe. The Aptemodonta (Aptemys, Heterosorus and others) were probably rodentlike forms that ranged from the middle Pliocene to the early Oligocene in North America and from the early Pliocene to the late Eocene in Europe. The Heterosoricidae are another possibly odontogeneously modified Paleocene form in North America. The Zalambdodontidae (Zalambdolestes only) occur in the Late Cretaceous



Fig. 2. Skull of Lipotyphla (Aptemodonta) in lateral view. (Aptemodonta, J. V. S.)

erone) *O O* diethyl phosphorothioate] and Trolene [*O O* dimethyl *O* (2 4 5 trichlorophenyl) phosphorothioate] for the control of grubs in cat tile began Co Ral is applied externally as a spray and is absorbed and translocated to kill the cattle grubs Trolene is most effective when administered internally Dimethoate [*O O* dimethyl *S* (*N* methylcarbamoylmethyl) phosphorodithioate] shows promise in this area also

Activity of organic phosphate insecticides results from the inhibition of the enzyme cholinesterase which performs a vital function in the transmission of impulses in the nervous system Inhibition of some phenyl esterases occurs also Inhibition results from direct coupling of phosphate with the enzyme Phosphorothionates are moderately active but become exceedingly potent upon oxidation to phosphates

Other types of insecticides Synthetic carbamate insecticides are attracting increased interest These include dimetan [5 5 dimethyl dihydroresorcinol dimethylcarbamate] Pyrolan [3 methyl 1 phenyl 5 pyrazolyl dimethylcarbamate] Isolan [1 isopropyl 3 methyl 5 pyrazolyl dimethylcarbamate] pyramat [2 *n* propyl 4-methylpyrimidyl (6) dimethylcarbamate] and Sevin [1 naphthyl *N* methylcarbamate] They are also cholinergic

Insecticides obtained from plants include nicotine [1 1 methyl 2 (3 pyridyl) pyrrolidine] rotenone the pyrethrins sabadilla and ryanodine some of which are the oldest known insecticides Nicotine was used as a crude extract of tobacco as early as 1763 The alkaloid is obtained from the leaves and stems of *Nicotiana tabacum* and *N. glauca* It has been used as a contact insecticide fumigant and stomach poison and is especially effective against aphids and other soft bodied insects

Rotenone is the most active of six related alkaloids found in a number of plants including *Derris elliptica* *D. malaccensis* *Lonchocarpus utilis* and *L. urucu* *Derris* is a native of East Asia and *Lonchocarpus* occurs in South America The highest concentrations are found in the roots Rotenone is active against a number of plant feeding pests and has found its greatest utility where toxic residues are to be avoided Rotenone is known also as derris or cube

The principal sources of pyrethrum are *Chrysanthemum cinerariaefolium* and *C. coccineum* Pyrethrins which are purified extracts prepared from flower petals contain four chemically different active ingredients Allethrin is a synthetic pyrethroid The pyrethrins find their greatest use in fly sprays household insecticides and grain protectants because they are the safest insecticidal materials available

Synergists The chemicals have little or no insecticidal activity but increase the activity of chemical with which they are mixed especially that of the pyrethrins Piperonyl butoxide (α [2 (2-butoxyethoxy) ethoxy] 4,5-methylenedioxy 2-propyltoluene) and Sexoxane [acetaldehyde 2 (2-

ethoxyethoxy) ethyl 3,4-methylenedioxyphenyl acetal] are two important commercially available pyrethrin synergists

Formulation and application Formulation of insecticides is extremely important in obtaining satisfactory control Common formulations include dusts water suspensions emulsions and solutions Accessory agents including dust carriers solvents emulsifiers wetting and dispersing agents tickers deodorants or masking agents synergists and antioxidants may be required to obtain a satisfactory product Insecticidal dusts are formulated for application as powders Toxicant concentration is usually quite low Water suspensions are usually prepared from wettable powders which are formulated in a manner similar to dusts except that the insecticide is incorporated at a high concentration and wetting and dispersing agents are included Emulsifiable concentrates are usually prepared by solution of the chemical in a satisfactory solvent to which an emulsifier is added They are diluted with water prior to application

Proper timing of insecticide applications is important in obtaining satisfactory control Dusts are more easily and more rapidly applied than are sprays However results may be more erratic and much greater attention must be paid to weather conditions than is required for sprays Coverage of plants and insects is generally less satisfactory with dusts than with sprays It is best to make dust applications early in the day while the plants are covered with dew so that greater amounts of dust will adhere If prevailing winds are too strong a considerable proportion of a dust will be lost Spray operations will usually require the use of heavier equipment however Application of insecticides should be properly correlated with the occurrence of the most susceptible stage in the life cycle of the pest involved See ENTOMOLOGY ECONOMIC FUMIGANT INSECT CONTROL BIOLOGICAL INSECTA PESTICIDE [CAH CFL]

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Insectivora

An order of mammals including such familiar forms as the hedgehog shrew and mole The Insectivora are of ancient origin and are difficult to define they are united by primitive characters that for the most part are primitive for all placental mammals It is quite possible therefore that several stocks of primitive mammal of different origin are included in the order Many fossil insectivores are known some going back as far as the Cretaceous The order is usually divided into 8 superfamily groups 3 of which are extant living insectivores are divided into (1) the tenrec and shrew relatives all Madagascar (2) the golden mole (3) the elephant shrew (4) the elephant shrew (5) the mole shrew (6) the mole shrew (7) the mole shrew (8) the mole shrew



Fig 2 Skull and lower jaw of *Ictops*, an Oligocene menotyphlan insectore (After W. Scott and G. Jepsen)

ceous of Mongolia and appear to be primitive relatives of the Leptictidae in which the anterior dentition is aberrant. The *Endotheriidae* (*Endotherium*) occur in the middle Mesozoic of China and may be the most primitive known menotyphlans but they are insufficiently known for meaningful appraisal.

Still a third group the *Deltatheridiidae*, most of whose members possess upper teeth bearing only one major cusp or two closely appressed cusps ranging from the Late Cretaceous (Mongolia three genera) to the late Oligocene (North America *Apternodus*) has been placed in the Insectivora in the past but has recently been shown to be more closely related to the Carnivora. See CARNIVORA FOSSILS.

Lipotyphlan insectivores were specialized and gave rise to no other orders of known mammals. The hedgehog supposedly the prime example of a primitive placental mammal since Huxley's day is considerably advanced over early Cenozoic menotyphlans and all living erinaceoid derivatives are even more aberrant. The Menotyphla on the other hand gave rise to many orders and may be regarded as the primitive placental stock, some of whose members have survived to modern times to live side by side with lipotyphlan insectivores.

[M.C.M.C.]

Insectivorous plants

These are plants having variously modified highly specialized leaves which capture and digest insects. The proteins of the digested insect bodies supply nitrogen which otherwise may be unavailable to the plants in the places where they grow. Sometimes they are also called carnivorous (flesh-eating) plants. See PITCHER PLANT, SUNDEW, VENUS FLY TRAP; see also SARRACENIALES, SECRETORY STRUCTURES PLANT. [P.D.]

Insolation

The amount of solar radiation which reaches a unit horizontal area of the earth. It is the latitudinal variation of insolation which supplies energy for the general circulation of the atmosphere. Insolation outside the earth's atmosphere depends on the angle of incidence of the solar beam and on the solar constant. The solar constant is the amount of energy which in unit time reaches a unit plane surface perpendicular to the sun's rays outside

the earth's atmosphere when the earth is at its mean distance from the sun. Insolation is measured in langley (ly) or calorie per centimeter squared ($ly = cal/cm^2$). A marked winter gradient of insolation exists from close to 900 ly/day near the Equator to zero in the dark polar areas but in summer the insolation is quite uniform—over 1000 ly/day near the poles compared with about 800 ly/day near the Equator.

The extraterrestrial solar energy is modified by the air, the clouds, and the land and water surface of the earth. Energy of wavelengths shorter than about 2900 angstroms does not reach the surface but is absorbed high in the atmosphere mainly by nitrogen, oxygen, and ozone.

Air molecules also scatter energy in accordance with Rayleigh's law, and absorption by ozone, water vapor, and other gases further reduces the solar energy transmitted. See SCATTERING (ELECTROMAGNETIC RADIATION).

Particles always present in the lower atmosphere scatter and absorb energy too. However, clouds affect the extraterrestrial insolation more than any other atmospheric factor. The reflectivity (or albedo) of clouds varies from less than 10 to over 90% of the insolation on them. The albedo will be higher in visible light than in total solar energy for clouds absorb mainly in the near-infrared. The cloud albedo depends on the droplet liquid water content, water vapor content, and thickness of the cloud. It also depends on the sun's zenith distance Z . The smaller the droplets and the greater the liquid water content, other things being the same, the greater the cloud albedo.

Clouds also absorb solar energy. Thick, warm (high vapor content) clouds absorb more energy than other clouds, and for clouds of pure liquid water droplets the absorption may reach over 30% of the energy incident on the cloud top.

The solar energy measured underneath clouds also depends on the reflectivity of the surface. An overcast which transmits 0.4 of the energy incident on it when the clouds are over a forest will transmit 0.7 of the incident energy when it is located over a highly reflecting snow surface. This is caused by the multiple reflection between the snow and the clouds but the forest still absorbs more energy than the snow.

All the atmospheric effects will modify the distribution of the solar energy which reaches the surface. For example, H.C.H. light is computed the annual albedo shown in the following table.

| Latitude of Insolation | | Latitude of Observation | | | |
|------------------------|--|-------------------------|----------|----------|----------|
| Latitude | | 0° N | 30° N | 60° N | 90° N |
| | | (ly/day) | (ly/day) | (ly/day) | (ly/day) |
| Total incident | | 80 | 40 | 40 | 30 |
| Atmospheric | | | | | |
| Water vapor | | 0 | 0 | 10 | 0 |
| Clouds | | 110 | 450 | 60 | 10 |
| Total below surface | | 0 | 30 | 60 | 10 |

called motorboating or at ultrasonic frequencies that cannot be heard but cause distortion and a drop in efficiency

Instability is a much more serious problem in higher frequency amplifiers particularly microwave amplifiers because the excessive positive feedback can be caused by the very small capacitance between two adjacent connecting wires by the capacitance between a component and the metal chassis or even by electron tubes operating at incorrect working voltages See AMPLIFIER

[J MR]

Instinctive behavior

Any species typical pattern of responses not clearly habitual or acquired through experience This wording is preferred to the traditional term instinct which denotes an innate impulse blindly impelling action appropriate to attaining certain end The adjective instinctive is used by some the Freudians for example to signify certain complex motivated behavior and thus leans toward the classical meaning that of an innate drive or predisposition to given acts

The problem In every animal species certain characteristic patterns or systems of adaptive action appear under certain conditions Thus many spiders spin webs typical of their species most birds make species typical nests and leavers build dams and lodges The activities instinctive in the above sense pose important questions concerning their evolutionary basis and genetics their ontogeny and psychology and their adaptive significance

Criteria Earlier theorists seeking objective approaches to this problem devised certain criteria of the instinctive in behavior particularly appearance shortly after birth or hatching no essential dependence upon learning and appearance in the individual raised in isolation With further research however the criteria all met with objection For example the first is contradicted by evidence that species typical behavior may appear at stages other than birth the second by evidence that experience and learning often exert their effects in ways resisting clear identification for example embryonic stimulation or prenatal conditioning and the third by the fact that isolation may not exclude extrinsic influence that is stimulate properties of the individual itself which are characteristic of the species But the last two of the criteria still influence many student of comparative animal behavior who synonymize with instinctive such concepts as innate nature and endogenous

Focal points in research and theory Objective study demands that the behavior patterns of representative animals be studied analytically and that the basic assumption be tested Research must cover environmental condition and stimuli the range of environmental variation and organic conditions underlying the development and appearance of the behavior Both longitudinal and cross-sectional

studies of behavioral ontogeny are needed obtained by methods appropriate to the species and its genetic controls

In theorizing all conceptual terms must be evaluated Thus skepticism about the instinct concept centers around traditional dogma which differentiates psychologically between man concerned as the sole possessor of reason and lower animal ruled by instinct This idea is contradicted by much evidence in comparative psychology The related assumption that animals possess an original innate nature modified only secondarily (if at all) by experience is opposed by evidence on behavior development The related idea of sharply distinguishing instinctive from intelligent behavior is in contrast to evidence that instinctive behavior is often plastic in relation to the situation Differences in the nature of such behavior and in its developmental basis doubtless exist on different phyletic levels

Other unsettled controversial points in research and theory concern the role in such behavior of (1) neural organization (2) nonnervous organic factors such as hormone and (3) environment and perception together with the relation of the instinct to ontogeny (development) Some authorities postulate the existence of innate central neural coordinations to account for the rise and control of instinctive behavior others emphasize the role of peripheral mechanisms interwoven with neural processes in behavioral ontogeny (see BEHAVIOR ONTOGENY OF) Classical distinctions between reflex and instinct are questioned on the ground that such functions may differ in degree rather than in kind Theories distinguishing sharply between instinct and learning meet the objections that neither of the elements sufficiently well understood and that both may vary greatly in their form and in their relationship to development on different phyletic levels

Although all behavior is related to heredity the influence of the genes upon behavior is a complex question still unanswered Gene in the chromosome must exert basic influences on structural growth and through structure on behavior (see BEHAVIOR AND HEREDITY (GENETIC)) Examples of behavior determined or influenced by structure are readily found in animal structure and characteristics the gain cellular pigment in the retina of the eye and prerenal frequency or night activity size of certain gland such as the adrenal and degree of docility or of wildness However it is another matter to trace out such principles from the fertilized egg through the migration of ontogeny

The genetics of some of the species predictable behavioral characteristics of animal have been worked out and are impressive The thorough selective breeding of parental generation it has been possible to produce hybrid animals of certain insect like birds and mammals differing predictably from the parent in behavioral characteristics which affect the parent behavior and reproductive behavior

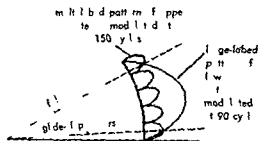


Fig 5 M h d f p d g a g l g d p t h
by m of t e t g field p t t s d t d f m
r w o r s t s p f i d d f t h g h t b e t h
g d (HLS)

The power of these beacons is of the order of 3
atts d t h v a c t e d t a n t n n a y s t e m s
u s t g o f e v e r a l i n f i n e f u l l w a e l e m e n t s
h c h p p t h a d a t o n l o g t h p p r c h
p a t h a d t h b y n f t t o a r r w a e a l o g
t h e p a t h d a w d a a t g l t a n g l e t o t h e
p t h I n t h e a r a f t a e p a t e y t a l n t o l l e d
e c r o f f l w e n t t v s u t i l e d p e c i f a l l y f o r
t h e c p t n f i t h m k e b e a c o n g n a l T h
o u t p u t o f t h e s c o n n e c t e d t o u n t a b l e
f i l t e r w h c h t h a c t u a t e t h e e l i g h t I n m e
t a l l t o n a t g l i g h t s e m p l o y e d n d t l e r
f e t h e g l f o m t h t h r m r k r s a r e n t
p a t e l y d e f i n e d S e N A V I G A T I O N S Y S T E M S
E L E C T R O N I C P R E C I S I O N A P P R O A C H R A D A R (P A R)
(p c s)

B b l g p h y J S H a l l R a d A d s t o N a t g a
n o n 1947 P C S a d t t E l t o n A t g a o n
E n g r i g 1958

Instrument transformer

E l t t a f o r m e r p e c i f i c a l l y d e s i g n e d f o r u e
n m a u e m e t d n t l u i t T i p p e
o f s t m t t n f o m t n e t p r m a r y
l t g e t s t e c o d a r y a l s s t a b l e f o r
t h r l a y m e t r r t h e r m s u g e q u i p -
m e t A o n d p u p t o l a t e t h h o l t
a g p m c t f m t h e m s m e n t t
T l t h t r i t m e a r n g d e c d t h e
p r o t e c t i o n f p n e l s n g s u h d s e
g r t l y m p l f i d b y t h e f i n t m t t n s f
f m r A l t h h o w g t f b a l e m t d
f l s o d a g r a m f o r n t r u m n t r n s f m e r i
h n n F g l F g e n e a l d u o f t r a
f r m T r a s f o r m e r
S p e c i l d e s i g n t h n q u a d m t a l e
e d n t u m t t f r m e t a u r a h i g h d e
g f i b l t a d l b l t y b e c s e m p r p
o p r t n u l d e u l t m i e l m e t e i g
p p l a t r p w e y t e m d m a g i r l a y n g
p p l a t
T l e a t w g a l t y p f n t u m n t r n s f
f n n t r m e t p t n t a t r f r m w h c h
a w e d l a g m a u m t a d i t r m e n t
r t t n f r m w l t e d n r n t
m r m n t
T l p r m r f p o t t a l t a n f r m r
n t e d t h l n d t h e t t h a t f l w

t h r u g h t h i w i n d i n g p r o d u c e s a f l u x i n t h e c o r e
S n c e t h c r e l i n k s b o t h t h e p r i m a r y a n d s e c o n d a r y
w i n d i n g s a v l t a g e s i n d u c e d i n t h e s e c o n d a r y
c i r c u i t T h e r a t i o o f p r i m a r y t o s e c o n d a r y v o l t a g e
s r o u g h l y i n p r o p o r t i o n t o t h e n u m b e r o f t u r n s i n
t h e p r i m a r y a n d s e c o n d a r y w i n d i n g s U s u a l l y t h i s
r a t i o i s s e l e c t e d t o p r o d u c e 115 o r 100 v o l t s a t t h e
s e c o n d a r y t e r m i n a l w h e n r a t e d v l t a g e i s a p p l i e d
t o t h e p r i m a r y

T h e c u r r e n t t r a n s f o r m e r d i f f e r s f r o m t h e p o t e n t i a l
t r a n s f o r m e r i n t h a t t h e p r i m a r y w i n d i n g i s d e s i g n e d
f o r c o n n e c t i o n i n s e r i e s w i t h t h e l i n e T h e
r a t i o o f p r i m a r y t o s e c o n d a r y c u r r e n t i s r o u g h l y
i n v e r s e l y p r o p o r t i o n a l t o t h e r a t i o o f p r i m a r y t o
s e c o n d a r y t u r n s U s u a l l y 5 a m p e r e c e n d a r y c u r r e n t
i s p r o d u c e d b y r a t e d u r r e n t i n t h e p r i m a r y

I n t r u m e n t t r a n s f o r m e r m a y d i f f e r c o n s i d e r a b l y
s i n c e t h e p h y s i c a l c o n s t r u c t i o n d e p e n d s u p o n t h e
i n t e n d e d a p p l i c a t i o n A p o t e n t i a l t r a n s f o r m e r u s u a l l y
h a s a n a g n e t i c c o r e a n d c i l a r a n g e m e n t t h a t
s q u i t s i m i l a r t o t h a t o f t h e c o n t e n t n a l p o w e r
d i s t r i b u t i o n t r a n s f o r m e r S i n c e t h e c o r e p e r
a t e s c o n t i n u o u s l y a t t h e h i g h e s t f l u x d e n s i t y c o n
s i s t e n t w i t h g o o d m a g n e t i c d e s i g n t h e c o r e i s i f e
m a y h a t p r o d u c e T h e r e f r e h e l l t y c a n
t o t o n u a l l y i s e m p l o y e d f o r e f f e c t i v e h e a t d i s
p a t e n

I n a c u r r e n t t r a n s f o r m e r t h e m a g n e t i c c r e d e n s i t y
i s a f u n c t i o n o f l i n e c u r r e n t a n d e x c e p t f o r
c o n s o n a t a n t s c a u s e d b y l i n e f a u l t s i s u s u a l l y
e r r o r f r o m t h e c r e l o s s n e g l i g i b l e a n d t h e
w i n d i n g s a r e t h e m a j o r c o u s e o f h e a t T h e r e f r e
t h o s e t y p e o f c o n s t r u c t i o n s g e n e r a l l y e m p l o y e d
S p e c i a l n u l a s i n s u h a s a r c s u t a n t h t y l
r u b b e r h a e b e a u d e e l o p d f o r w i n d i n g n u l a
t n t o e n u e n e e r y r e l i a b i l i t y a n d a s e t y

I n s t r u m e n t t r a n s f o r m e r s h a e a m a r k e d r a t i o
w h h d i f f e r f r o m t h e t u r n r a t i o a n d m a r e n e a r l y

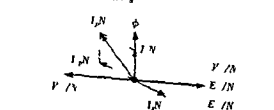
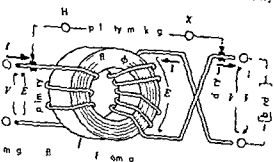


Fig 1 A m p l i t u d e t r a n s f o r m e r d i s t r i b u t i o n
p o t e n t i a l t r a n s f o r m e r d i s t r i b u t i o n
m p l i f i c a t i o n (f m f f x d a p p l i e d E l e c t r i c
M e m o r i a l W i l y 1954)

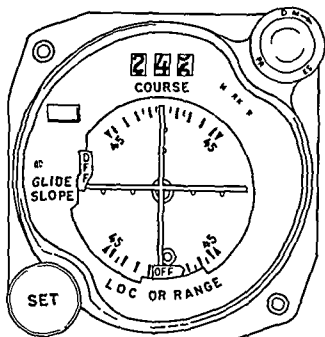


Fig 3 Modern cross pointer instrument. A marker beacon light is mounted in the upper right hand corner

employs only three elements and is fed by a transmitter operating 10 kilocycles from that feeding the main array. This transmitter and its associated antenna supplies guidance everywhere except in the sector immediately forward. When the aircraft is in the forward sector (see Fig 4) its receiver is captured by the more powerful signal from the large array and guidance is furnished by this signal with its attendant freedom from site effects. See ANTENNA (AERIAL).

Glide slope. The glide slope equipment operates on a frequency of 329.3 to 335 megacycles. This equipment is normally located 150 ft from the approach end of the runway and approximately 450 ft from its center line. Twenty channels are provided in this band. Antenna arrays utilized with the glide slope system are of two general types: the equisignal system and the null type system. Signals from both systems are capable of producing satisfactory indications when received by equipments with similar adjustment. Both systems utilize the earth as a reflecting plane.

Equisignal system. In the equisignal system the transmitter output is modulated with 90 and

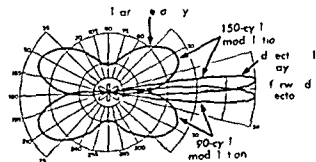


Fig 4 Localizer field pattern showing guidance for all forward sector approach and guidance for all other sector

150 cycles. The carrier and sidebands resulting from the 90 cycle modulation are fed to a horizontally polarized antenna located at such a distance above the ground that only one lobe is formed in the space used. This height is approximately 6 ft for glide slope angles of about 2°. The carrier and sidebands resulting from the 150 cycle modulation are connected to an upper antenna located at a height of approximately 28.5 ft. This antenna generates five lobes in the same space as the angle of the 90 cycle signal (see Fig 5).

In the aircraft a special receiver is used to receive the glide slope signal. At the output of the receiver the 90 and 150 cycle are separated by filters and their intensities compared by a bridge circuit. The output of the bridge is connected to a horizontal needle on the instrument previously described (see Fig 3). The deflection of the needle upward and downward indicates the vertical position of the aircraft with respect to the optimum approach path. As is the practice with the localizer signals an auxiliary OFF indicator so that the centering of the needle is actually caused by the sufficient intensity of the 90 and 150-cycle glide slope signals and not by their absence.

Null type system. The pattern of the signal from the lower glide slope antenna is affected by precipitation. To minimize this effect the null type system has been devised. In this system the upper and lower antennas are fed with carrier and sideband signals resulting from both the 90- and 150-cycle modulation. The upper antenna is located at a height of approximately 33 ft for a desired vertical angle of approximately 5° and produces two lobes. Because of the reflection phenomena the sidelobe of these two lobes will be in opposing phase. The lower antenna is located at exactly half the height of the upper antenna, thus it produces a single lobe with a maximum at the same angle for which the upper antenna has a minimum. Deviation from the glide slope position causes the 90- and 150-cycle intensity to increase greatly, thus causing the needle to deflect either upward or downward. A deviation of only one-half degree from the normal position produces a strong deflection. The lower antenna is now being at a height of 16.5 ft (rather than 6 ft), a relatively unaffordable hang in the height of the ground plane. The precipitation on a wall a high a 2 ft produce change in path angle of less than 0.13°.

Marker beacons. To indicate progress along the approach path there are three marker beacons. The transmitter operating at 5 megacycles confines their radiation to large vertical elliptical patterns using only small areas of the horizontal plane. The outer marker radiates at a distance of approximately 4 miles from the primary field airfield and is fitted at a frequency of 1400 cycles. A middle marker is fitted for intermediate 3.00 ft from the approach end of the runway and is fitted with a frequency of 1300 cycles. The inner marker is fitted at the primary field airfield, is fitted with a frequency of 3000 cycles.

met an el the ppld oltage I_p t polar by s
determ ned f r all turns includ ng the econdary

$$E/E_p = -I_p/I \approx N_p/I$$

In trument r nsf m s ha e polarity marks uch
th t wh n the c r r t enters the H p m ary t
t n s u ly les es th X e ndary and I H h
p t e p t entual X s al o p t e

Clos the e e nd r y c r e t o f n de al t an forme
res h n s a ndary c r e n t with an mmf \mathcal{F} n the
prod c n a magnetiz n f c e H

$$\mathcal{F} = \mathcal{N}$$

$$H = \mathcal{N}_p / l$$

he e \mathcal{N} s the number of seco d r y turns and l
th m gn t cut length

This magn t r n f c must exa tly ancel that
of the p m r y s n e n ex t i o n f l x is needed
f th ideal t an form r

$$\mathcal{N}_p / l = -N_p / l$$

$$I = N \mathcal{N}$$

Whe n defined a $-N \mathcal{N}$ the foll wing r
l l n n l x f ed

$$I = p n \quad E = -E / \quad I = I /$$

Wh n th co dary r t i l sed the seco d
r y current I/Z_b wh Z the sec ndary bu
den (the l d a d s t wh ng) c mp ed f r e t
anc R and a t n e i s

An etu l in trum t t ansformer an be s mu
l t d by the two k h n in F g 2a Sc m am
pe e t r n needed to p duce exc t ng f l x i
th m gn t c ut A ur e t l thr ough N turn
p o d es th f l it has a mag e t r z g c mp n nt
l d an eddy r r nt and hy t r e s watt l s
comp e t f Th ar imulated n the equiva
lent cut by acta e X_m and a r istan e R_w
r p e c t e ly The t s f m w nd ng t r e s i t
n h w by R d R nd mag t i f akag
prod es m all e t n e s sh wn by \mathcal{N} nd \mathcal{Y}
Eq l t t u t l m e t g th d a l trans
me h d awn by e l r r g all al es t th
e e nd r y a F g 2b o t the p r m ary in
F g c

R l f r e f r r g q ab t s f r m the p r m ary
t th cond r y a (1) multi p l y by () d
d l a d E l y nd (3) d d $Z_p R$ and
 \mathcal{Y} by n

Th s e q l n t u e t s e ally s i f a t r y
t o p r e d t t n f r m p e f r m a l t h igh in th
t f m th m gn t z f h r t t e t
o l n a Cap t t e f t s l ex t Th s
h uld be e v l t e d a t f e q u e n c e s b o 100 p
d t s u l l y n e c r y t h a n g a l f X_m
d R a f t n o f f g u n y

Accurac es P r t a l t f r m r e c a e d e
p e d n th m gn t u d f p r m ary and econdary
h a g d p r With the ndary p e r t u d
th l v h a g d p a u e d by th x c t g u
e t \mathcal{N} th a b d e t p o b l t d d d o p d
to the b d u t both p r m a v d c d

ary t obtain the over all change in performan e
f tent al tr nsformers are de igned to ha e low ex
c t ng c r e n t and l w nd ng impedances

In a c u r r e n t r n form r the differ nce between
the co dary and p m ary current s t e exc t ng
c u r r e n t The e f r e small err rs in both ratio and
pha ngle ex t s fundam ntally These errors ary
with p m ary c u r r e n t and many c m p e n s a t ng
ch e n e s ha e b e n u e d to increa e accuracy B th
th magnet z ng and o t e l s u r r n t are k p t
s m l l s p e c i a l l a m n a t n m a t e r i a l s u e d n l s p e c i a l
t e c h n i q u e a r e u e d t r d c l o e s in the
t a n form r

Comm rcial s t u m e n t t r a n s f o r m e r s h a v e e x
t r e m e l y g o d a c u r a t a t d m a n u f a c t u r e r s f r m h
t y p a l c u r v e s d e p t n g a n m a l l e r r r *American*
Standard f r Transformer Regulat rs and Reac
t o s (ASA C57) p c i f e the accura y c l e s for
p e c i f i c b u d e s and err r a e k e p t w i t h i n t h e s
t a n d a r d a c u r a c i e s for t r a n s f o r m e r s of a g i e n
c l s s F o e v e g r e t r a c u r e s t e s t e q u i p m e n t
a a i l a b l e f r a c c u r a t e m e a s u r i n g r a t i o s and phase
a g l s b y e t h e r d r e c t m e t h o d o r b y c o m p a r i s o n
w i t h s t a n d a r d t r a n s f o r m e r s S e E L E C T R I C A L M E A S U R E M E N T S [I F K]

B i b l o g a p h y I F K n n r d *Appl ed El c t r c l*
M a s u e m n t s 1956

Instrumental analysis

The u e of an instrum nt to m e s u r e a c o m p o n e n t
t o d e t e c t t h e c m p l e t e o f a q u a n t i t y e r e a c t i n
o r t o d e t e c t a c h a n g e in the p r p e r t s f a s y s t m

The p e n e e f a m a s u a b l e c h a r a t e r i s t c
h h s a n u n e q l y d p d e t u p o the c o n c e n t a
t o n f t h s u b t a n e t l d e t r m e d r e q u r e d
Th s h a r c t e r i s t c a b e a b o r p t o r e m s n
f r g y r a d i a c t i v i t y x d a t n o r r e d c t n b e h a v i
h a v i n u c l r o r l e c t r o c i p o p r t i e s m a g n e t i c
b e h a o r the m a l p o p r t i e s The c h a r a c t e r i s t i c
s h l d b e e a s i l y m a s r e d and h l d b e s m p l y
r e l a t e d t the a m u t o f m a t e r i a l I n t E x
a m p l s o f t h e a p p l a t a e t h e d t r m a t i n s
f r a d i u m i n e s b y r a d i o a c t i v i t y n a l y o f
t u n g t n m t e l b y m a n s p e c t o s c o p y f
i t m A b y u l t o f a b s o r p t n n l o f c o p p e
s l l g l m a t e s l s b y p o l o g r a p h y I n t w o
c m p n e n t s y s t e m a p o p e r t y o f t h e s y s t e m a
w h o l e c a n f t e n b m s r e d and r e l a t e d t o the
d t e d o m p n e t F o r a m p l e a w a t e r e t h y l
a l c o h l m i x t u r e n a b e a n a l y z e d b y d e t y r
e f r a t i d x m a r e m n t s F o r a m p l e c
t a n g c o m p n e n t s a n l e p r a t e m e r e
m e n t a r e n e c s a r y

An i n t u m t a n b u e d t d e t e t the m p l
t o n o f q t t a t e r t a w h e n i m p l e m e t h
d s c h a v s u a l i d a t o r a e n o t a p p l a b l e
U a l l y c h a r a c t r i t f t h e u s t c e b e n g
d e t m e d f t h e c e n t m e r d
A n e x a m p l e t h m p e o m t c t u r t m o n o f u l f a t e
n t h l e a d o n w h e e t h f i t e c s f l d
b y o d t h e d p o t s d t e c t d b s t e l e t h y z c
r d u t i o c u r n t

represents the true ratio of output to input. However, since the true ratio changes slightly with burden frequency, temperature changes and other factors, the marked ratio must be multiplied by a ratio correction factor to give the true ratio under specified operating conditions.

Principles of operation. In instrument transformers approach an ideal transformer and their principle of operation is explained by a study of the ideal. The practical differences from the ideal can then be incorporated and equivalent circuits can be established which allow analysis of most instrument transformer problems.

In the ideal instrument transformer the output voltage or current is exactly proportional in magnitude to and exactly opposite in phase to the corresponding input voltage or current. This means there is no core or winding loss and no resistance or reactance voltage drops. All the flux links both primary and secondary windings.

An alternating voltage applied to the transformer produces a primary current and a resulting alternating flux ϕ in the core. The same alternating emf e is induced in each primary and secondary turn by the changing flux linkages $d\phi/dt$. For a complete winding the induced voltage equals $-N(d\phi/dt)$ where N is the number of turns.

The instantaneous flux ϕ in an ideal transformer is sinusoidal with a maximum value of ϕ_m when the applied voltage is sinusoidal.

$$\phi = \phi_m \sin \omega t$$

Therefore

$$e = -\phi_m N \omega \cos \omega t$$

The root mean square (rms) value of the voltage is

$$E = 4.44 \phi_m N f$$

where f is the frequency. This induced voltage is determined only by the applied voltage and the number of turns, since there are no other voltage drops. Since the induced voltage in the primary E_p

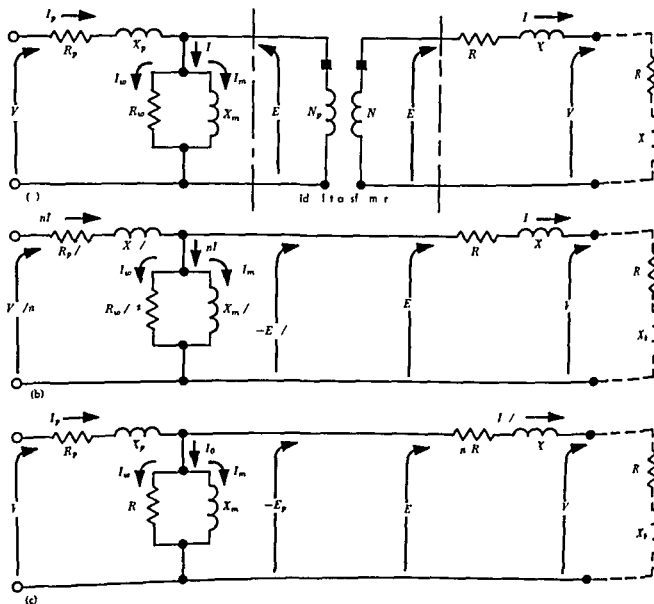


Fig 2 (a-c) Instrument transformer equivalent circuits. (a) Ideal transformer. (b) All quantities are referred to secondary. (c) All quantities are referred to primary. (From I.E.E. Trans. Appl. Elect. Technol. 1956)

Instrumental analysis does not require the appearance or disappearance of a characteristic. It can be only an increase or decrease. An example is the pH titration of a weak acid in water where the change in hydronium ion concentration is measured using the change in potential of an electrode in the solution.

Automatic instrumental analysis is applicable to any system. For example, an infrared analyzer can be built into a pipe through which a process stream flows. After the relationship between energy absorption and concentration has been established, the device reports the concentration to the control room and in addition makes a record on a graph all without human supervision. Instruments can also be used to remove a measured quantity of sample to titrate a given constituent to clean the titration vessel and to report the analysis with no help other than the providing of standard reagent solutions and the selection of proper equivalence point conditions. [KCS]

Instrumentation

Designing manufacturing and utilizing physical instruments or instrument systems for detection observation measurement automatic control automatic computation communication or data processing. Loosely the term instrumentation is also used for the ensemble of instruments and auxiliary equipment used in an experiment test or process.

Instruments and instrument systems. In the broadest meaning of the word, an instrument is any device useful in accomplishing an objective. Scientific and technical instruments (to be differentiated fromurgical musical and legal instruments) are devices used in observing measuring controlling recording computing or communicating.

Instruments and instrument systems refine extend or supplement human faculties and abilities to enhance perception communicate remember calculate or reason. The human senses by which we feel smell taste see hear maintain balance estimate distance and the like are refined or extended by such devices as surface roughness and contour gauge micrometer chemical analyzer pH meter microscope telescope gyro-stabilized platform range finder and many others. Other instruments such as magnetometers and cosmic ray counters enhance or measure physical quantities for which there is no physiological sense developed in human beings. Other instruments (such as cameras correlator simulator and computers) perform functions of timing transmitting or processing information signals in way analogous to or going beyond human ability to record remember communicate compare count and systematically apply logical operation.

The simplest instrument merely provide a material standard with which the user can compare a physical quantity as a measurement of length by a yardstick. Transducers are instruments which

transform the quantity under observation (the measurand) into another quantity for which a standard of comparison is more readily or easily available or which may be transmitted further transformed recorded or otherwise processed for utilization. A liquid in glass thermometer transforms temperature (the measurand) into position of the liquid in the stem with an attached scale calibrated in temperature units.

The signal—a condition, quantity or magnitude generated by the transducer as representative of the measurand—may be transformed a number of times and in a number of ways in an instrument system. For example, temperature may affect the position of a bimetallic strip whose movement may change the electrical capacitance in a circuit thereby changing a frequency or voltage which may control the duration of a radiotelemetry signal (pulse duration modulation). The telemetry signal in turn (after transmission reception and demodulation) may be transformed into current in a galvanometer which change the position of a light beam on a photographic film for recording or it might be transformed by an analog-to-digital converter into a pattern of signals for use in a computer or the signal might actuate a servomotor or a relay which would adjust the input of heat into the region of the bimetallic strip to control temperature.

Each of the many transformations of a signal throughout an instrument system may result in some additional lag and often in a loss in accuracy, but may be justified by convenience or necessity and even by improved overall system accuracy or response characteristic.

The following list includes some of the more important functions of instruments or components of instrumentation system in creating or handling signals (or information or data): excitation generation modulation detection comparison amplification differentiation integration attenuation conversion switching counting timing programming correlating linearizing correcting displaying recording reducing analyzing computing and controlling. Since all branches of experimental science and technology rely on instrumentation specialized in instrument with a corresponding body of knowledge and practice have been developed separately in many fields. Thus chemical instrumentation aeronautical instrumentation medical instrumentation optical instrumentation and many other similar terms indicate areas of specialization in instrumentation for professional use.

Instruments are a medium for applying a principle to the field of purpose or application as a navigational instrument or ranging instrument or oceanographic instrument according to their functions in instrumentation system. A function of a measurement is a signal processing, transmitting, signal modification or display rather than the physical quantity or property that it is being measured.

For example the explosion of space generation of power by nuclear reactions and determination of high temperature properties of material presents new instrumental problems. In general, instrumental on research seeks attainment of higher accuracy, greater sensitive capability of measuring extreme value applicability under trim conditions of use and capability of relating changes of effects that occur at extremely high speeds, such as nuclear phenomena. See PHYSICAL MEASUREMENT.

The trend to wider use of instrumentation for a t m t m a s u e m e n t a n d i n t r l n i n d u s t r y s c o n t i n u a l l y a c c e l e r a t i n g a n d w h o l e n w a d u t r i e a c e m e n t g w h c h u l d t x i t w i t h o u t h i g h l y s o p h i s t i c a t e d i n s t r u m e n t a t i o n T h i s t r e n d w i l l o n t i n u e a t a r a t e l i m i t e d o n l y b y q u e s t i o n o f c o s t

safety and reliability Reliability particularly of electr c compo e t h b e e n r u s p r o b l e m b u t w i l l i m p r o v e a s a r e s t f d e v e l o p m e n t s i n s o l i d t e c h n i c a l e m e n t n e w m a t e r i a l s n e w t e c h n i q u e a d m r a t t p u n t e a l l s y s t m e g i n e e n g S R E L I A B I L I T Y O F E Q U I P M E N T

An other gnificant tendency increasing utilization of data processing devices is the order of the systems and similar computer for automatic sorting and selection of electronic information and numerical data in bookkeeping and accounting and documentation. Similar devices are being adapted for automatic coding, loading and automatic language translation.

Computer theory being extended to the design of logic machines and self-organizing systems which may simulate not only the processes of memorizing a design on but also the processes of learning. Moreover, on speed and capacity will soon make it as feasible to use a computer to compute weather predictions from analysis of meteorological data from a worldwide observatory network to analyze a defense system trends to a self-guided reconnaissance and military capability to predict their probable outcome from a strategy or electoral calculation.

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n rolog cal pa m se now ba ly me gi g
b t e r t a to b om w d p ead Correlati
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l n t m t fo locati n a d ident ification f
n r l l l r m l t p l y g n n u m b r d p c t

In education a discipline must be given
and a good one is very important to be a teacher
in general and other training for the future
the value of the training is the efficiency of the
whole education system [waw]
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of Chemical Analysis of 1950 H Ch st
L. R W M Y S r m ch a m s d Reg
1st & 2nd ed 1951 D M Con d ne
1951 P 1st ed 1951 D M Con d ne
1951 B C D Lohook 1st ed 1951 I I st u
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insulation electric

Material of high resistivity used to confine the electrons in a conductor may guide them to some useful device. For electric wiring the insulation is limited to fairly flexible types.

INSULATION REQUIREMENTS

The application of insulations is varied that choice must be made after consideration of the necessity, properties and the weaknesses of the insulation, and its practical circumstances of installation. No insulation has all the advantages the insulation should be so chosen that its disadvantages are not a detriment in the specific application.

My de rable characteri cs are n t perma-
nt. Th re re the p opert es of th materi l after
a perod of ye rs n the en t nmental ondi ns
must als be known. New mate als requ e time
t devel p their unf rescen weaknes es.

Electrical requirements These vary with the specific properties of the test depend upon the application. The important properties of insulation are discussed below. See DIELECTRICS

Re: *us ty Comm nly m a ur d as n ulat n e*
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ment of th w into the n ulat n alte el ct if a
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hap th mo i m p t ant ch ra te i tic but d te-
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d p r u p t ly r f ly r p d ly er vic fa lu-
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Delicacy of the property determines the
ability of the system to respond to the elec-
tric potential. It is also affected by the ther-
mal conductivity of the high temperature by the
heat and by the temperature of the material.

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to initiate corrective action. Since the output measurement is used to control the input, such systems are called closed loop or feedback control systems. For discussion of the use of instrumentation in control systems see CONTROL SYSTEMS, SERVO MECHANISM.

If the response characteristics of the instrument system are not appropriately matched to those of the controlled system, the parameter of the combined system may exhibit transient or sustained oscillation. The general problem in design or analysis of automatic control systems is to determine and obtain the instrument performance which will ensure the optimum speed of response consistent with stability. For linear systems (those for which output response is proportional to input) this may be done analytically. Text on instrument engineering, cryomechanism, or mechanics describe the several mathematical procedures commonly used for analysis of simple instrument measuring systems and control system. For non-linear system, digital computers may provide solution of acceptable accuracy.

Analogue computers or simulator provide rapid nonanalytic solution for behavior of linear (or to some extent nonlinear) systems under various conditions. Both types of computer are not only used to study system but are increasingly included as part of system whose behavior they predict and control. Digital computers also find major uses in rapid storage, retrieval and processing of data of all type and for solving scientific problems of great complexity. See COMPUTER.

The entire field of military technology rests largely upon modern development in instrumentation, many of which in fact resulted from military need. Radar, sonar and infrared detector are used not only for detection but also in combination with computer and control system for automatic guidance of weapon. Homing torpedoes, self-guided missile and computer-controlled anti-missile missile are examples of the radical change in method of warfare resulting from instrumentation whereby warheads are automatically guided rather than merely thrown at the enemy.

In instrumentation for measurement of nuclear radiation is the basis for all military and peaceful use of atomic energy and radioactive isotopes.

Thus the scope of instrumentation is nearly universal; it may well be called a common denominator of all of science and technology.

Related fields. Because of the universal scope of instrumentation, there are many fields that are closely related.

Systems engineering. This term is applied to the design or analysis of process or machine system as well as to instrument system. In instrumentation systems primarily to solve the flow of signal (information) whereas the physical system or process involve primarily the flow of energy, material, or both. Since the same general law applies to all physical system and since instruments are essentially in-

strumentation, a large and necessary part of systems engineering in any field such as aircraft, missile, oil refining, steel rolling and communications. See SYSTEMS ENGINEERING.

A fundamental part of instrument system engineering relates to the theory of automatic control and to the practical application of automatic control equipment.

Information theory. This body of mathematical and logical knowledge developed for analysis of the efficiency and the limitation of communication systems is broadly applicable to all types of signals or data and is thus important to instrumentation. In any instrument or system the output signal varies to some extent in an unpredictable manner because of disturbing influence. Some of what may be inherent in the instrument or system. The undistorted signal is often referred to as noise. The ratio of the magnitude of the signal to that of the noise is important as an indication of possible error limits and detectability limit. The frequency range of signals that can be utilized by an instrument system determine the amount of useful measurement data that can be handled per unit of time. The fundamental definitions of information, frequency bandwidth, noise channel capacity and their interrelations are all involved in information theory, thus this field is clearly of basic importance to instrumentation and particularly to communication in instruments and system. See INFORMATION THEORY.

Human engineering. This is frequently involved in instrumentation. To be operatively or to provide information to an operator in instrumentation system should be designed to take account of his physical, physiological and psychological characteristics. In design of display or manipulative elements, visual acuity and body characteristics must be considered in analysis or design of system in which a human being provides a link between measurement and control the reaction time and decision capabilities of the human being and his susceptibility to fatigue and to environmental factors must also be taken into account. See HUMAN ENGINEERING.

Cybernetics. Cylonic relates to the field of man-machine communication and the application of information theory to response and automatic control in physical system. It is thus another field which partly includes and partly includes in the field of instrumentation. See CYBERNETICS.

Automation. This recently introduced term still has various meanings but generally implies the application of automatic control to an operation or process. A term applied to economic and technological control implies the modernization of industrial operation to utilize modernized equipment and instrumentation for automatic control measurement and data handling to a greater degree. See AUTOMATION.

Trends in instrumentation. Although in control and technological fields, instrumentation is not only a

For example the expl rat of space ge crati n of power by nuclea react r and det rmination of high temperature propertie of mate als pre se t new instrumentat on problm In general nstrumentation res at h eeks to attain higher accu raci s, greater en ti tes capability of measuring extreme values appli ably u d r extreme condi ti n of use and capab lity of resol ing changes or eff cts that occur at extremely hgl pe ds s h as nucl a phenom na See PHYSICAL MEASUREMENT

The tre d t wider u e of nstrumentation fo tom the mea rem nt and ntrol i dustry is co tinually accel rating and whole new ndustri s a e eme ging whch c uld n t ex st wthout highly soph t c ted in trum ntati n This trend will con t u at a rate l m ted only by qu t ons of c t saf ty and rel bility Rel bility parti larly of ele t c c mpo ent ba b n a seri us problem but wll mprove a a result f d elopments in solid t t c cut el me t n w mate als new tech qu s and mo e atte t on to o er all system eng n r ng S RELIABILITY OF EQUIPMENT

An li g nificant trend is th nc a ing ut li zat n of data proc ing devi s, r corde s om p t s and mlar eq pment for aut m t c oming sto g and r p d sele ti e retr e al of inform t on d nme al d ta i bank g a counting d doe m ntati on Simla d c s are be ng ad pt d fo automate d read g l dng to automat c lan gu ge tran l t on

Comput r theo y s be g xtended t the de gn of lgc ma h n s nd elf o ga ing y tems wh h may m late not only the pr c s of rememb ng and rea o ng b t l the pr c s of lea n g Me xt n on of speed and cap c ty will oon mak fe bl th u f c mpe tes to om pute weathe p d cti n from analy is of met o f gl l data f om a w l d w de bs reat o n t w rk t analyze and fre a t co m c t end t se l g t t q r m nts and m l t ry capab l t s nd t pred t th pr bable utcome of mul t r y nt r r politic t t

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Insulation electric

Mat l of h gh re istu ty u ed to confine the elec tron in a conduct r o it may g ide them to some u eful dev e Fo lect ic wiring the insulati n is limited to fa tly flexible types

INSULATION REQUIREMENTS

The appli cation f insulati ons are o a sed that cho ce mu t be m de fter c n d r t ion of the nece sary prop te e and the weaknes es of the insulati on and f th pec al c r um tance of in tall t on No m ut ti n has all the ad ant ge the insulati n sho ld be o ch en that its d d an tag a e not a det iment i the specific appli cation

Many desi able characteri ties are not perma nent The efore the prop te es f the m terial alter a p riod of ye rs n the en v r o mental condition m st al b kn wn New m te l r q re t me t d el p th r u fo e en weakn s es

Electrical requirements These vary with use sp ific prop rti s f interest depe d upon the p pl at o The importa t p p rtes of insulati on are di u sed by efly See DIELECTRICS

R st ity Commonly mea u ed as n uf ti n re s tanc t s i ba ed on a di c t cr nt measu e ment l fl w into the in ulati n after el ctri a t ion of l m n The ur rent sho ld e small and the in lat n e st nce larg In itself it i not per h ps th mo t m p tant char c t r i c but determ r t i n s f r n f u d t occu f t er in low n la t on r sta e materials und r weathering co di ti ns It i s a lu ble measure f con t ncy and uniform ty i manufactur If in rvice it sho ld d op bruptly or fairly apidly a ervic f l ure s l kely t fl w

D el ctri st ngth Th s prop rty d term nes the ab l ty of the in ulati on to r s t pun tu e by elec t c potent als l ad er ly aff cted by weath r i g or g g by high temper re by c n t n d heat and by th ent anc of m i tu

Pou f to Th s i mea ur of the p weel a t the insulati on and sho ld be l w A ap d n e e s a dang sign It i mport nt in h gh voltage ble b t um t t i low oltag e ca ble xc pt th s used for c mmunicat n It

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Trends in instrumentation. Advances in science and technology make ever increasing demands on instrumentation. Every new scientific investigation

| Characteristics | Polyethylene | Polyethylene | Polyethylene | Mylar | Nylon | Teflon | Kel-F |
|---------------------------|---------------|--------------|------------------|-----------------|---------------|--------------|--------------|
| Insulation | High | High | Can be anything | Good | Fair | Good | Good |
| Dielectric strength | Good | Good | Can be anything | Good | Fair | Good | Good |
| Power factor | Low | Low | High | Low | High | Low | Low |
| Dielectric constant | Low | Low | Medium | Low | Medium | Medium | Medium |
| Chemical resistance | Good | Good | Good to fair | Good | Good to fair | Good | Good |
| Water permeability | Good | Good | Good to fair | Good | Fair | Good | Good |
| Resistance to light | Good if black | Fair | Can be good | Fair to good | Good if black | Good | Good |
| Flammable | Yes | Yes | No | Yes | Yes | No | No |
| Tensile strength | Good | Good | Good | High | Good | Good | Good |
| Resistance to deformation | Fair | Good | Fair | Good | Good | Good | Good |
| Abrasion resistance | Good | Fair to good | Good | Good | Good | Good | Good |
| Stiffness | Considerable | Extreme | Anything desired | | Considerable | Considerable | Considerable |
| Cost | Low | Low | Low | Relatively high | Fair | High | High |

Polyethylene This plastic is used today in a wide variety of applications. It is a very good material for making pipes, containers, and other products. It is also used in the form of fibers for clothing and other textile applications. The table shows that it has a high tensile strength and is resistant to most chemicals. It is also a good insulator and has a low power factor. However, it is not very resistant to light and is flammable. Its resistance to deformation is fair, and it has a fair abrasion resistance. It is relatively stiff and has a low cost.

Thermosetting materials These materials are used in a wide variety of applications. They are characterized by their high tensile strength and resistance to deformation. They are also resistant to most chemicals and have a high power factor. However, they are not very resistant to light and are flammable. Their resistance to deformation is high, and they have a high abrasion resistance. They are relatively stiff and have a high cost.

ral or synthetic rubber but the latter would yield more in form a depreciable result.

Rubber compounds can be made with good mechanical properties and high tensile strength. They are also resistant to most chemicals and have a high power factor. However, they are not very resistant to light and are flammable. Their resistance to deformation is high, and they have a high abrasion resistance. They are relatively stiff and have a high cost.

Usually they need protection from mechanical abuse. They have a high tensile strength and are resistant to most chemicals. However, they are not very resistant to light and are flammable. Their resistance to deformation is high, and they have a high abrasion resistance. They are relatively stiff and have a high cost.

Butyl This synthetic rubber has not been used to the highest advantage because of its dielectric strength is less than that of B.N.S. and of natural rubber. It will not harden under usual conditions. Agniet's characteristics are a combination of some compounds and do not differ from natural rubber in its characteristics. It is a very good material for making pipes, containers, and other products. It is also used in the form of fibers for clothing and other textile applications. The table shows that it has a high tensile strength and is resistant to most chemicals. It is also a good insulator and has a low power factor. However, it is not very resistant to light and is flammable. Its resistance to deformation is fair, and it has a fair abrasion resistance. It is relatively stiff and has a low cost.

Acopon This black material is composed of a mixture of rubber and plastic. It is used in a wide variety of applications. It is characterized by its high tensile strength and resistance to deformation. It is also resistant to most chemicals and has a high power factor. However, it is not very resistant to light and is flammable. Its resistance to deformation is high, and it has a high abrasion resistance. It is relatively stiff and has a high cost.

Silicone rubber This is a very good material for making pipes, containers, and other products. It is also used in the form of fibers for clothing and other textile applications. The table shows that it has a high tensile strength and is resistant to most chemicals. It is also a good insulator and has a low power factor. However, it is not very resistant to light and is flammable. Its resistance to deformation is fair, and it has a fair abrasion resistance. It is relatively stiff and has a low cost.

usually increases with rise in temperature of the insulation

Dielectric constant Also known as SIC (specific inductive capacity) this is a measure of the charge required to bring the apparatus up to voltage compared to that required if air were substituted for the insulation. It is principally of importance in communication circuits and low values are preferred except for capacitors where high dielectric constants provide high energy storage in a small volume. See DIELECTRIC CONSTANT

Temperature requirements These vary with each application and installation. A compromise is usually necessary because an insulation good for high temperatures has other shortcomings and the same for low temperatures. The Electrical Code and American Institute of Electrical Engineers Standards give limiting temperatures at which specific insulations shall be used. This means the final temperature of the insulation which is the result of the temperature of the surrounding medium, usually air, and the heat from the current in the cable conductor. Temperature should be maintained at a value at which the insulation will last for a long time. Most insulations are stiffer and more likely to crack on bending at lower temperatures and conversely to soften at higher temperatures. This applies to temperatures applied for short duration. Higher temperatures applied for long duration usually harden and possibly embrittle insulation although some new rubber compounds soften and become puttylike. In both cases the value of the insulation is impaired and electrical failure may occur if bent in the first case or due to its own weight in the latter case.

Where a nonflammable cable is required some other desirable property must usually be sacrificed.

Mechanical requirements Normally electric insulation should be designed to hold electricity not to withstand mechanical abuse. For the necessary rough treatment that may occur in installation of cable braids, tapes or sheaths are employed over the insulation as a protection. These can be designed to withstand the mechanical treatment likely to occur and the insulation can be designed for optimum electrical functions. Of course the insulation should not break at the low temperatures anticipated or soften at the high ones. Some materials will even flow at temperatures not usually considered high; these are unreliable as insulation.

Chemical requirements These are usually determined by the specific application intended for the wire. Sometimes resistance to oil or liquids, gas fume, or airborne powders in chemical plants is required. It is usually the mechanical protection of the insulation that must be designed to withstand this environment rather than the insulation and each case needs special consideration.

Chemicals in the soil around buried cables or in ducts and manholes around duct cables can cause deterioration. This again usually occurs on the mechanical protection of the cable but may ap-

ply to the insulation itself. About the only guide for choice is to use an insulation that has proven by many years of service its suitability for such conditions.

Water can have disastrous effects if it enters the insulating medium of a cable. This is especially true with paper insulation, either dry or oiled or with varnished cambric. Some compounds of rubber can hold appreciable amounts of water without harm to their electrical properties but others are seriously affected. In many cases water absorption as a criterion of serviceability of an insulation is exaggerated and undue importance may be given to it. Its importance actually depends on its effect on the life or the electrical properties needed for the specific application of the insulating material.

Many seemingly impervious materials have been used for keeping water and oil or hydrocarbons away from insulation with the later discovery that these liquids can pass through the barrier without adversely affecting it. It is thought electric potentials sometimes aid in the transfer and penetration by the liquid.

FLEXIBLE INSULATION

Insulating materials are often only one ingredient in a compound finally applied to a wire as insulation. An infinite variety of mixtures can result all based on the same primary ingredient which often gives its name to the class. Still the properties of the compounds may be so different as not to deserve grouping as a certain class. Such compounding may make a poor material or an outstanding one, both with the same major ingredient. In general insulations are either thermoplastic or thermosetting. In others the effect of heat has no function. There are many insulating materials only the more important are discussed here.

Thermoplastic insulation Materials in this class can be softened by heating so they can be extruded and when cool return to their original condition. The general characteristics of the material are compared in the table.

Polyethylene This is particularly important for high frequency applications, however it has shortcomings. It melts at about 110°C so that short circuits or overloads of current on a cable may cause the insulation to run off. It is very stiff and in thick walls on wire may prove too stiff for usefulness. Cases of cracking have occurred in service mostly due to certain gases or hydrocarbons. Newer higher molecular weight polyethylene is designed to avoid this but may lose some of the advantage of the original polyethylene. See POLYOLFIN RESINS.

Polystyrene This also has exceptional electrical properties but it must be used in thin film or where it will not be bent. It has thick walls are stiff and brittle. Its electrical properties are less affected by change of temperature than most insulations. See POLYVINYL RESINS.

Epoxy resins These are used as insulation of joints. A liquid and a powder are mixed and heat is given off. The chemical action sets it to a solid which is not flexible but has good electrical and mechanical properties.

Heat insensitive insulations The effect of heat has no function in establishing the properties of the insulating materials in this group.

Paper Paper insulation in multilayers oil impregnated and protected from moisture by a lead sheath is an old standby. It is popularly used at voltages over 15 000 volts. It has good electrical characteristics which change with age. Its weakness is the lead or similar sheath which must be in perfect condition to keep the cable dry and operating. Lead is subject to crystallization and electrolysis which can perforate it.

Varnished cambric This is a series of thin layers of varnished cloth. Its electrical properties are not as good as paper oil cable and it requires the same moisture and mechanical protection usually a lead sheath. It is used at lower voltages.

Nitrogen gas This is used to a considerable extent as an insulation for high voltage applications. It is used under pressure in a pipe containing the conductor.

Magnesium oxide This is a novel insulation for low voltages but rather high temperatures. It is enclosed in a copper tube and carries the conductor at its center. It is good for wet and dry locations and in special applications it may be used to 250 C.

Asbestos Besides its heat insulating properties asbestos is an electric insulator to some extent particularly if impregnated with some waxlike substance. It usually requires a water impervious sheath and is used for relatively low voltages. It is also used in combination with plastics or varnished cambric. See ASBESTOS. [A S D]

RIGID INSULATION

Besides their use as flexible coverings for wires and cables insulating materials are employed in molded or built up form as components of rigid structures. This rigid insulation must provide mechanical strength and stability of form as well as a dielectric barrier. Mica, glass, porcelain and the thermosetting resins are the principal rigid insulating materials but these may be used in combination with any of the flexible materials.

Mica A mineral of finely laminated structure and easy cleavage mica flakes are flexible tough and highly resistant to heat. Mica is most often employed in the form of splittings about 1 mil thick which may be snowed on to sheets of thin paper or glass fiber bonded with a suitable varnish and applied in multiple layers of tape. Finely divided mica is used with epoxy or other resins to make a mica paper without separate backing. Ground mica is used as a filler in molded insulation. See MICA.

Glass An amorphous material glass ordinarily consists of a mixture of silicates borates phos-

phates and other materials with silica SiO_2 forming 50-90% of the total content. It is employed in a great variety of compositions. Blown and cast forms are used. Glass yarn or cloth made of fibers 0.2-0.3 mil in diameter is also employed. See GLASS AND GLASS PRODUCTS.

Porcelain This is a hard brittle and impervious material made from feldspar, quartz, clay and other minerals. The materials are finely ground intimately mixed in a liquid state molded into the desired shape while plastic, dipped in glaze and fired at a high temperature. See PORCELAIN.

Uses of rigid insulation Rigid electrical insulation is used for supporting conductors and spacing them apart in a gas or liquid environment where the air or other surrounding medium is relied upon to provide the needed dielectric strength except at the supports. Here the chief requirements are high surface creepage resistance and high strength to withstand the imposed mechanical forces including the shocks from short circuit currents. The insulation must be impervious to water so that it will retain its high electrical resistance when washed or exposed to the weather and for the higher voltages it must be able to withstand arc discharges over the surface.

For the highest voltages as for power transmission lines the conductors are hung on strings of suspension insulators or supported on bushings. These are made of glazed porcelain with a series of skirts to lengthen the creepage paths and provide maximum resistance to flash over. For medium voltages the bushings may be made of glass or molded plastics.

For low voltages as for industrial control equipment and household appliances and where many conductors need to be closely spaced thermosetting plastic compounds are used chosen for their structural rigidity, high surface creepage resistance, ease of manufacture and low cost. Besides a wide variety of synthetic compounds such as phenolic, melamine and polyester resins composite materials such as phenolic resin coated cotton or asbestos fabric and impregnated wood are used.

When the conductor spacing is too small for reliance on the dielectric strength of the surrounding gas or liquid as in transformers and rotating machines the rigid insulation must form a sealed barrier of high dielectric strength over the entire conductor surface. The requirements are especially severe for the slot embedded conductors of rotating machines where the insulation thickness must be held to a minimum and where part of the surface may be exposed to high velocity cooling air often containing fine particles of conducting material such as carbon dust.

In general the windings of electric machines consist of stranded conductors arranged in series or parallel connected coils or both each with one or more turns. Thus three principal kinds of insulation are required for apparatus windings for the strand, for the turns and for the complete coil. The strand insulation must be flexible enough to

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 [C.B.R.R.]

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Insulation resistance testing

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DIELECTRICS INSULATOR ELECTRICAL RESISTANCE ELECTRICAL RESISTIVITY ELECTRICAL

Guarded deflection method This method for
 measuring insulat n resistance illustrated by Fig
 1 uses the ltmeter ammeter method (see RESIST
 ANCE MEASUREMENT) The voltage is mea ured with
 a voltmeter of su table range the current i meas
 ured by a calibr ted gal anometer with an Ayrtson
 sl unt for r nge exten sion or a vacu m tube dc am
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A mod fication of this method which perm ts it e
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 1b In th s meth d neither the test volt g nor the
 curr nts need be kn wn since the te t resi tance
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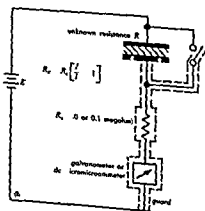
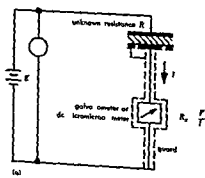


Fig 1 C l c t f g d d d Re t me m t
 of l t i c () Voltmet amm t m thod
 (b) C mp o m thod

absolute temperature on an inverse scale and extrapolating back to the proposed operating temperature the life expectancies of alternative materials and systems may be compared

[P.L.A.]

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Insulation heat

Materials whose principal purpose is to retard the flow of heat. Thermal or heat insulation materials may be divided into two classes: bulk insulations and reflective insulations. The class and the material within a class to be used for a given application depend upon such factors as temperature of operation, ambient conditions, mechanical strength requirements and economics.

Examples of bulk insulation include mineral wool, vegetable fibers, 85% magnesia, calcium silicate, with asbestos, vermiculite, silica aerogel, diatomite, and insulating fire brick. They retard the flow of heat by breaking up the heat flow path by the interposition of many air spaces and in most cases by their opacity to radiant heat.

Reflective insulations are usually aluminum foil or sheets, although occasionally a coated steel sheet, an aluminized paper, or even gold or silver surfaces are used. Their effectiveness is due to their low emissivity (high reflectivity) of heat radiation.

Thermal insulations are regularly used at temperatures ranging from a few degrees above absolute zero, as in the storage of liquid hydrogen and helium, to 3000 F in high temperature furnaces. Temperatures of 4000–5000 F are encountered in the hotter portions of missiles and rockets; the temperature exposure lasting only minutes or seconds so that insulations that would be destroyed by protracted exposure to these temperatures are successfully used.

Heat flow. The distinguishing property of bulk thermal insulation is low thermal conductivity. Under conditions of steady state heat flow the following empirical equation describes the heat flow through a material:

$$\frac{q}{A} = k \frac{A(\theta_2 - \theta_1)}{l}$$

where q = time rate of heat flow, A = area, θ_2 = temperature of colder side, θ_1 = temperature of warmer side, l = thickness or length of heat flow path, and k = thermal conductivity representative values being listed in the table. For a given thickness of material exposed to a given temperature

Thermal conductivities of selected solids

| Material | Density lb/ft ³ | Temp F | Conductivity Btu/(ft)(h)(°F) |
|---------------------------------|-------------------------------|-----------|---------------------------------|
| Asbestos cement board | 120 | 75 | 4 |
| Cotton fiber | 0.8 | 0 | 0.6 |
| Mineral wool fiberock | 15–40 | 75 | 0.27 |
| Inlaid glass wood or cane fiber | 15 | 75 | 0.3 |
| Foamed plastics | 1.6 | 5 | 0.9 |
| Gl | | | 36–3 |
| Hardwoods, typical | 45 | 75 | 1.10 |
| Softwoods, typical | 3 | 75 | 0.80 |
| Clay glass | 9 | 75 | 0.40 |
| Feldspar (5%) | | | |
| Styrene foam (0%) | 100 | 40 | 45 |
| Insulation (tent) | 100 | 40 | 95 |
| Gypsum or plaster board | 50 | 75 | 1.1 |

From American Society of Heating, Refrigerating and Air Conditioning Engineers, *Handbook of Engineering Fundamentals*, 1963, p. 19.9.
† Type I, ultimate; ‡ Type II, average.

difference, the rate of heat flow per unit area is directly proportional to the thermal conductivity of the material.

In the unsteady state or transient heat flow the density and specific heat of a material have a strong influence upon the rate of heat flow. In such cases thermal diffusivity $\alpha = k/\rho C_p$ is the important property. Here ρ = density and C_p = specific heat at constant pressure. In the case of one-dimensional heat flow through a homogeneous material the governing equation is

$$\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial t} = \alpha \frac{\partial^2 \theta}{\partial x^2}$$

where t = time and x is measured along the heat flow path from 0 to l .

Thermal conductivity. In general thermal conductivity is not a constant for the material but varies with temperature. For metals and other crystalline materials, conductivity decreases with increasing temperature; for glasses and other amorphous materials, conductivity increases with temperature. Bulk insulation materials in general behave like amorphous materials and have a positive temperature coefficient of conductivity.

Thermal conductivity of bulk insulation depends upon the nature of the gas in the pores. The conductivities of two insulations identical except for the gases filling the pore spaces will differ by an amount close to the difference in the conductivity of the two gases.

Increasing the pressure of the gas in the pores of a bulk insulation has little effect on the conductivity even with pressure of several atmospheres. Decreasing the pressure has little effect until the mean free path of the gas is in the order of magnitude of the dimensions of the pore. Below this pressure the conductivity decreases rapidly until it

and to define an integral transform. More generally the integral may be a multiple integral and the function f or G may depend on a larger number of variables. Equation (1) is the right of a transformation whose character and space of function $\phi(y)$ and the character of function $f(x)$. The function $G(xy)$ is the kernel of the transformation. One of the important uses of such a transformation is based on the fact that a problem posed in one of the two spaces is quite different from the other. For example, a differential equation to be solved for the function $\phi(y)$ may become an algebraic equation for the unknown function $f(x)$ if $G(xy)$ is a LAPLACE TRANSFORM.

The two basic problems for any integral transformation are inversion and representation. In the first the aim is to recover $\phi(y)$ from $f(x)$ the kernel $G(xy)$ being known. This is Eq. (1), the thought of an integral equation (of the first kind) to be solved for the unknown function $\phi(y)$. A method for calculating $\phi(y)$ from $f(x)$ is called an inversion formula and in its proper sense the transformation is called useful only if it can be applied to the passage from each space to the other. Thus, in the inversion problem the question is which functions $f(x)$ may be written in the required form (1). This is one aspect which functions $f(x)$ will make Eq. (1) solvable for $\phi(y)$. Usually this problem becomes more tractable when the solution $\phi(y)$ is restricted to some sub-space such as the class of periodic or bounded functions.

Inversion theory. In many cases where the problem has been solved in one space, the operator has a different integral representation. It has been found depending upon the parameters which have a simple limit case in which it may be reduced by $O(f(x))$. This means that for each value of the parameter the problem is solved on $f(x)$ and for δ of F example, it might be 3 or 4 depending on the magnitude of δ compared to the threshold value of $f(x)$. Suppose that O applied to Eq. (1) produces

$$O\{f(x)\} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} G(x-y)\phi(y)dy \quad (2)$$

with $G(x-y)$ as a new kernel. In fact, in fact, the integral (2) produces $\phi(x)$ as a particular case of the limit for example when $G(x-y) = \delta(x-y)$. An important special case of Eq. (1) is the one in which the kernel is function of $x-y$.

$$f(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} G(x-y)\phi(y)dy \quad (3)$$

A general notation for Eq. (3) is

$$F(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} K(xy)\Phi(y)dy \quad (4)$$

the kernel $K(xy) = e^{-xy} = e^{-x}e^{-y}$ is called the exponential kernel. In Eq. (4) the kernel is stable in the sense that the transformation formulas. Many of the transformations have been named for the original author.

principal inverse transform. A few of the more important ones can be listed with the names ordinarily attached to them.

For Eq. (1)

| | | |
|----------------------|----------------------|---------|
| A. Bilateral Laplace | $G(xy) = e^{-xy}$ | |
| B. Fourier | $G(x) = e^{ix}$ | |
| C. Mellin | $G(xy) = y^{x-1}$ | $y > 0$ |
| | $= 0$ | $y < 0$ |
| D. Stieltjes | $G(xy) = (x+y)^{-1}$ | $y > 0$ |
| | $= 0$ | $y < 0$ |

For Eq. (3)

| | | |
|---------------------------|---------------------------|---------|
| E. Dirichlet | $G(x) = x^{-1} \sin x$ | |
| F. Fourier | $G(x) = x^{-2} (\ln x)^2$ | |
| G. Fractional (Weyl form) | $G(x) = (-x)^{x-1}$ | $x < 0$ |
| | $= 0$ | $x > 0$ |
| H. Hilbert | $G(x) = x^{-1}$ | |
| I. Poisson | $G(x) = e^{- x }$ | |
| J. Poisson | $G(x) = (1+x^2)^{-1}$ | |
| K. Laplace (unilateral) | $G(x) = e^{-x}e^{-x^2}$ | |
| L. Stieltjes | $G(x) = \sinh(x/2)$ | |
| M. Weierstrass-Gauss | $G(x) = e^{-x^2}$ | |

For Eq. (4)

| | | |
|-------------------------|------------------------------|--|
| N. Fourier cosine | $\Lambda(x) = \cos x$ | |
| O. Fourier sine | $\Lambda(x) = \sin x$ | |
| P. Hankel | $\Lambda(x) = \sqrt{x} J(x)$ | |
| Q. Laplace (unilateral) | $\Lambda(x) = e^{-x}$ | |
| R. Mellin | $\Lambda(x) = \sqrt{x} K(x)$ | |

Here $J(x)$ is a Bessel function and $K(x)$ a modified Bessel function. Certain transformations related to the above are of the first kind appearance in two equations. In fact all of the above are convolution transforms except A, B, and C. It can be seen also that A, D, E are the same transformation (i.e., $y = \ln x$).

Representation. The representation theory for a large class of convolution transformations has been completely worked out on a calculus according to the method (see OPERATOR THEORY). If the symbol D stands for differentiation with respect to x but is nevertheless treated as a number in the familiar

$$e^{iD} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{i^k}{k!} D^k$$

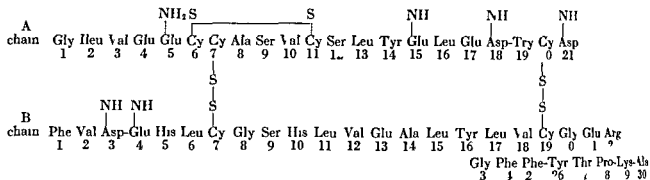
one is led to make the definition

$$e^{iD}f(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{i^k}{k!} D^k f(x) = f(x+i) \quad (5)$$

since the series (5) is precisely the Maclaurin expansion of $f(x+i)$ if D^k is allowed to mean a k th derivative.

Now we consider the bilateral Laplace transform $F(x)$ in Eq. (1) denoted by $1/E(x)$

$$\frac{1}{E(x)} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-xy} G(y) dy \quad (6)$$



Structure of cattle insulin

1924 demonstrated that the anterior pituitary plays an important role in the etiology of the diabetic state of an organism. See PANCREAS.

The biological potency of insulin preparations is given in terms of an international unit (IU) defined as the hormonal activity of 0.125 mg of an international standard preparation. It is generally assayed by injecting the hormone subcutaneously into fasting rabbits and then determining the rate and extent of the lowering of the blood sugar level. Pure insulin possesses an activity equivalent to 24 IU per milligram. Insulin loses its physiological activity when treated with alkali to pH 10 or with proteolytic enzymes like chymotrypsin.

Insulin is a polypeptide with a molecular weight of approximately 6000. It is generally prepared from beef pancreas and this bovine insulin has been found to be composed of 254 atoms of carbon 377 atoms of hydrogen 65 atoms of nitrogen 75 atoms of oxygen and 6 atoms of sulfur. The insulin molecule contains 48 amino acids which make up two peptide chains (A chain and B chain) joined by sulfur atoms or —S—S bridges. A complete description of the structure of bovine insulin was achieved by F. Sanger and coworkers in 1954. The structural formula is depicted above where Gly is glycine Ileu isoleucine Val valine Glu glutamic acid Cys cystine Ala alanine Ser serine Leu leucine Tyr tyrosine Asp aspartic acid Try tryptophan Phe phenylalanine His histidine Thr threonine Pro proline Lys lysine Arg arginine.

Insulin preparations from other species such as pig sheep horse and whale have also been examined by Sanger and coworkers and have been found to be similar in structure to the bovine insulin except for the amino acid sequence comprising positions 8 9 and 10 in the A chain of the molecule The biological potency of insulin has not been found to differ from species to species nor has it been possible to differentiate the various preparations immunologically [CHL]

Insulin shock

A treatment for schizophrenic psychosis introduced by Manfred Sakel in 1933. It is also known as coma treatment. The patient receives a course of 20-50 treatments consisting of gradually increasing doses of insulin until coma is reached. Patients are

awakened by oral or intravenous applications of sugar or glucose. See SCHIZOPHRENIA

The treatment is an empirical method not based on a satisfactory theory. Reports about results of this treatment have always been contradictory ranging from enthusiastic reports of 80% recoveries to very conservative estimates in which the number of recovered patients hardly exceeds the rate of spontaneous remission. Factors such as the general hospital atmosphere, the attitude of the therapist and varying criteria of recovery explain such wide discrepancies.

Administration of insulin coma treatment is a complex time and personnel consuming procedure. For this reason and because fatalities have occurred and a number of patients have received lasting neurological damage, insulin shock treatment has been on the decline. It has been replaced largely by electric convulsive treatment and by drug therapy with tranquilizers and psychic energizers (see PSYCHIC ENERGIZER, TRANQUILIZER).

In subcoma treatment the doses are kept small enough so that not coma but its prodroma such as sweating, drowsiness and hunger are produced. During this subcoma state the patient may be more amenable to psychotherapy. See PSYCHOTHERAPY.

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Intaglio (gemology)

Replacing s by D and using Eq (5) one has

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{1}{E(D)} \phi(x) &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-tD} \phi(x) G(t) dt \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \phi(x-t) G(t) dt \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} G(x-y) \phi(y) dy \\ &= f(x) \quad x-t=y\end{aligned}\quad (7)$$

If $E(D)$ were a number one could solve Eq (7) to obtain

$$\phi(x) = E(D)f(x) \quad (8)$$

Finally reverting to the original meaning of D as a derivative one has in Eq (8) an inversion of Eq (1) by means of a differential operator $E(D)$

This argument is meant to be exploratory only but the result is accurate for a large class of kernels G and their corresponding inversion functions E . In summary the inversion function is the reciprocal of the bilateral Laplace transform of the kernel. It has been shown that the result is correct if for example $E(s)$ is the infinite product

$$E(s) = e^c - \prod_{k=1}^{\infty} \left(1 - \frac{s}{a_k}\right) e^{1/a_k} \quad (9)$$

where $c \geq 0$ and the series of real constants

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k^{-2}$$

converges

For example if $K(x) = e^{-x}$ then Eq (4) is the Laplace transform. Expressed as a convolution transform as in Eq (3) it becomes

$$e F(e) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} G(x-y) \Phi(e^{-y}) dy$$

where G is given in the above list as entry K. The bilateral Laplace transform of this kernel is the familiar gamma function

$$\Gamma(1-s) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-t} G(t) dt = \int_0^{\infty} e^{-t} t^{-s} dt$$

whose reciprocal has a well known expansion in the form of Eq (9)

$$E(s) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(1-s)} = e^{-\gamma} \prod_{k=1}^{\infty} \left(1 - \frac{s}{k}\right) e^{1/k}$$

Here γ is Euler's constant. In the present example Eq (8) becomes

$$e^{-\gamma D} \prod_{k=1}^{\infty} \left(1 - \frac{D}{k}\right) e^{D/k} F(e^x) = \Phi(e^{-x})$$

or if $e^{-x} = t$

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{(-1)^k}{k!} F^{(k)}\left(\frac{k}{t}\right) \left(\frac{k}{t}\right)^{k+1} = \Phi(t)$$

This familiar inversion formula also serves to illustrate the operator O_t appearing in Eq (2). In the present case the operator is a differential one

and the parameter t is an integer k which tend to ∞ . See CONFORMAL MAPPING INTEGRATION [D V W]

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Integration

An operation of the infinitesimal calculus which has two aspects. The roots of one go back to antiquity for Archimedes and other Greek mathematicians used the method of exhaustion to compute areas and volumes. A simple example of this is the approximation to the area of a circle obtained by inscribing a regular polygon of known area and then repeatedly doubling the number of sides. The areas of the successive polygons are computable with the help of elementary geometry. The limit of the sequence of these areas gives the area of the circle. The area of each polygon can be regarded as made up of the sum of the areas of triangles with vertices at the center of the circle and so the process described is a constructive definition of an integral which is the limit of a sum. Modern definitions of integrals as limits of sums are discussed in this article.

The other aspect of integration is the process of finding antiderivatives that is for a given function $f(x)$ to find another function $g(x)$ whose derivative is $f(x)$. This aspect is related to the first by the fundamental theorem of integral calculus so both processes are called integration.

Sir Isaac Newton emphasized the antiderivative aspect of integration and his work shows how much can be done in the applications of integral calculus without introducing limits of sums. However limits of sums lead to very fruitful theoretical developments in the theory of integration as in the notion of multiple integrals for example and hence lead to a wider variety of applications. Leibnitz the seventeenth century mathematician inspired the development in this direction but many years elapsed before the theory was given a firm logical foundation. In the early nineteenth century A. L. Cauchy gave a clear cut definition of the definite integral for continuous functions and a proof of its existence. Later G. F. B. Riemann discussed the integral for discontinuous functions and gave a necessary and sufficient condition for its existence. Thus the most generally used definition of the integral as the limit of a sum has come to be called the Riemann integral.

Riemann integral The precise definition of the Riemann integral for a real function f of one real variable x on a finite interval $a \leq x \leq b$ may be formulated as follows. Let P be a partition of the interval $[a, b]$ into n subintervals by points t_i where $t_1 < t_2 < \dots < t_n = b$ and consider a sum S of the form

$$S = \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i)(t_i - t_{i-1}) \quad (1)$$

where $t_1 \leq x_i \leq t_i$. The sum S depends not only on

the partition P but on the choice of the intermediate points x_i it may happen that the sum S approaches a definite limit which is the maximum of the numbers $\{f(x_i) - f(x_{i-1})\}$ and in this case f is called the Riemann integral (or the definite integral) of f from a to b and is denoted by the Leibnizian symbol

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx$$

Also f is said to be integrable on $[a, b]$ when f is a continuous function with positive value on the interval $[a, b]$ the integral has a simple geometric interpretation as the area bounded by the curve $y = f(x)$ the ordinates $x = a$ and $x = b$ and the graph of $y = f(x)$ (Fig. 1) It is convenient to define

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = - \int_b^a f(x) dx$$

For functions f and g which are integrable on $[a, b]$ the following theorems hold:

(i) f is integrable on every subinterval $[c, d] \subset [a, b]$
 (ii) For every triple of points a, c and b in $[a, b]$

$$\int_a^c f(x) dx + \int_c^b f(x) dx = \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

(iii) $f(x) + g(x)$ is integrable and

$$\int_a^b (f(x) + g(x)) dx = \int_a^b f(x) dx + \int_a^b g(x) dx$$

(iv) $f(x)g(x)$ is integrable and in particular $f(x)$ is integrable for every real number c and

$$\int_a^b cf(x) dx = c \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

(v) If $f(x) \leq g(x)$ on $[a, b]$ then

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx \leq \int_a^b g(x) dx$$

(vi) $|f(x)|$ is integrable and

$$\left| \int_a^b f(x) dx \right| \leq \int_a^b |f(x)| dx$$

It can be proved that if f is continuous on $[a, b]$ then f is integrable on $[a, b]$ and if the two conditions following are satisfied: f is bounded on $[a, b]$ and the set of points where f is discontinuous has no limit points (possibly finite) then f is integrable on $[a, b]$.

Antiderivatives The development of the fundamental theorem of integral calculus is a natural consequence of the

the interval $[a, b]$ on which f is integrable then

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx$$

is a function which may be denoted by $F(u)$. If f is continuous on $[a, b]$ then f is integrable and it is also true that $F(u)$ has a derivative $F'(u) = f(u)$. Now let h be any antiderivative of f that is $h(u) = f(u)$ on $[a, b]$. Then $F(u) - h(u) = 0$ so $F(u) - h(u) = \text{constant} = -h(a)$ by the theorem of the mean for derivatives and the fact that $F(a) = 0$.

$$F(u) = h(u) - h(a)$$

This is the fundamental theorem of integral calculus and it shows that definite integrals may be calculated by the process of finding antiderivatives. For the various antiderivatives of f are called indefinite integrals and denoted by $\int f(x) dx$ and several methods of finding indefinite integrals for frequently occurring functions occupy a large part of elementary calculus. The principal methods are outlined in the next section. The standard notation for an indefinite integral of $f(x)$ is

$$\int f(x) dx$$

Elementary methods of integration Obviously each formula for differentiation yields a formula for definite integration.

Method of substitution From the elementary definite integral addition formula can be obtained by the method of substitution which is based on the chain rule for differentiation of composite functions. For example from the formula

$$x^m dx = \frac{x^{m+1}}{m+1}$$

one obtains

$$\int (a^2 + x^2)^{m+1} dx = \frac{(a^2 + x^2)^{m+1}}{2(m+1)}$$

by the substitution $v = a^2 + x^2$ and

$$\int x^m dx = \frac{x^{m+1}}{m+1}$$

by the substitution $v = x$.

If the partial fractions in $f(x)$ is a quotient of two polynomials x $f(x)$ may be represented as a sum of polynomial and terms of the form

$$\frac{1}{(ax+b)^m} \quad a \neq 0 \quad (2)$$

$$\frac{A+B}{(cx^2+dx+e)^m} \quad c \neq 0 \quad d^2 - 4ce < 0 \quad (3)$$

where m is a positive integer and the coefficients are real. This is called the method of partial fractions. It is a rule that requires a knowledge of the factors of the denominator $f(x)$. Terms of the form (2) have known indefinite integrals. Term of the form (3) with $m = 1$ can also be

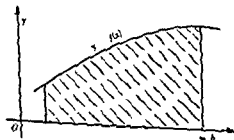


Fig. 1

integrated by elementary formulas. When $m > 1$ a term of the form (3) can be written as a sum of terms of the form

$$\frac{\alpha}{(ax^2 + dx + e)^{m-1}} \\ \text{and} \quad \frac{(\beta x + \alpha)(2cx + d)}{(cx^2 + dx + e)^m} \quad (4)$$

By the process of integration by parts the indefinite integral of a term of the form (4) can be expressed in terms of the integral of a term such as (3) with m replaced by $m - 1$. Reduction formulas of this type are given in standard tables of integrals.

A rational function of $\sin x$ and $\cos x$ may be integrated by the method just described after the substitution $u = \tan(x/2)$ has been applied. This substitution reduces the problem to the integration of a rational function of u . Various functions involving radicals can be integrated by means of trigonometric substitutions or by other substitution which reduce the problem to the integration of a rational function. For example, by setting $u = a + bx$ one finds

$$\int x^m (a + bx)^p dx = \int \left(\frac{u-a}{b} \right)^m u^p \frac{du}{b}$$

and when m is a nonnegative integer the right side may be multiplied out and integrated by the power formula, even though p is a fraction.

Integration by parts. This is a very powerful and important method. It follows from the formula for differentiating a product, namely

$$d(fg) = f dg + g df$$

After the terms are rearranged and integrated

$$\text{or} \quad \int f dg = fg - \int g df \\ \int f g' dx = f(x)g(x) - \int g f' dx$$

where the arbitrary constant, as usual, has been omitted. As an example, consider

$$I = \int \frac{2x^2 dx}{(x^2 + 1)^m}$$

which is a special case of (4). Let $f = x$, $g' = 2x/(x^2 + 1)^m$. Then $f' = 1$

$$g = \frac{1}{(1-m)(x^2 + 1)^{m-1}}$$

$$\text{so } I = \frac{x}{(1-m)(x^2 + 1)^{m-1}} - \frac{1}{(1-m)} \int \frac{dx}{(x^2 + 1)^{m-1}}$$

The indefinite integrals of many of the commonly occurring functions are given in table of integrals in handbooks and textbooks.

The elementary functions are those expressible by means of a finite number of algebraic operations and trigonometric and exponential functions and their inverses. The integrals of many elementary functions are known to be not elementary, so they define new functions. A number of these are suf-

ficiently important so that their values have been tabulated. Examples are

$$F(k, x) = \int_0^x \frac{dt}{\sqrt{(1-t^2)(1-k^2 t^2)}} \quad (k^2 \neq 1)$$

$$\text{Si } x = \int_0^x \frac{\sin t dt}{t}$$

$F(k, x)$ is called an elliptic integral of the first kind. The inverse of $u = F(k, x)$ is an elliptic function called the sine amplitude of u and denoted by $\text{sn } u$ (see ELLIPTIC FUNCTION AND INTEGRAL). Some of the nonelementary functions have been included in tables of integrals.

Improper integrals. This term is used to refer to an extension of the notion of definite integral to cases where the integrand is unbounded or the domain of integration is unbounded. Consider first the case when $f(x)$ is integrable (in the sense defined above) and hence bounded on every interval $[a + \epsilon, b]$ for $\epsilon > 0$ but is unbounded on $[a, b]$. Then by definition

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \int_{a+\epsilon}^b f(x) dx$$

provided the limit on the right exists. For example if $f(x) = x^{-2/3}$

$$\int_0^1 x^{-2/3} dx = \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \int_{\epsilon}^1 x^{-2/3} dx = \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} 3[1 - \epsilon^{1/3}] = 3$$

Similarly

$$\int_{-1}^0 x^{-2/3} dx = \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \int_{-1}^{-\epsilon} x^{-2/3} dx \\ = \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} 3[(-\epsilon)^{1/3} + 1] = 3$$

When $f(x)$ is integrable on every finite subinterval of the real axis, by definition

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(x) dx = \lim_{b \rightarrow +\infty} \int_b^{\infty} f(x) dx$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx = \lim_{b \rightarrow -\infty} \int_b^{\infty} f(x) dx$$

provided the limits on the right exist. More general cases are treated by dividing the real axis into pieces each of which satisfies one of the conditions just specified. For example

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x^{-5/3} dx = \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow \infty} \int_{-\epsilon}^{-1} x^{-5/3} dx \\ + \lim_{\delta \rightarrow 0} \int_{-1}^{-\delta} x^{-5/3} dx + \lim_{\delta \rightarrow 0} \int_{\delta}^1 x^{-5/3} dx \\ + \lim_{b \rightarrow +\infty} \int_1^b x^{-5/3} dx \quad (5)$$

Because the second and third of the limits on the right do not exist

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x^{-5/3} dx$$

is not defined. However, it is sometimes useful to as-

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$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^{-1} dx = \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \left[\int_{\epsilon}^1 x^{-1} dx + \int^{\infty} x^{-1} dx \right] \\ + \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow \infty} \left[\int_{-\epsilon}^{-1} x^{-1} dx + \int^0 x^{-1} dx \right]$$

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Line surface and volume integrals A gen ral
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integrated by elementary formulas. When $m > 1$ a term of the form (3) can be written as a sum of terms of the form

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When $f(x)$ is integrable on every finite subinterval of the real axis by definition

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(x) dx = \lim_{b \rightarrow +\infty} \int_b f(x) dx$$

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provided the limits on the right exist. More general cases are treated by dividing the real axis into pieces each of which satisfies one of the conditions just specified. For example

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x^{-1/3} dx = \lim_{a \rightarrow -\infty} \int_a^{-1} x^{-1/3} dx$$

$$+ \lim_{b \rightarrow -\infty} \int_{-1}^b x^{-1/3} dx + \lim_{c \rightarrow +\infty} \int_c^1 x^{-1/3} dx$$

$$+ \lim_{d \rightarrow +\infty} \int_1^d x^{-1/3} dx \quad (5)$$

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$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x^{-1/3} dx$$

does not exist. However it is sometimes useful to as-

$$\oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{s} = \iiint_V \text{curl } \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} \, d\sigma \quad (\text{Stokes})$$

$$\iiint_V \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} \, d\sigma = \iiint_V \text{div } \mathbf{F} \, dV \quad (\text{Gauss})$$

In the formula of Stokes \mathbf{F} is a vector field. S is a smooth surface having a piecewise smooth boundary curve C directed so that S lies to the left of an observer proceeding along C on the side of S in which the normal coincides with \mathbf{n} and T is the unit tangent vector to C . In terms of the components of \mathbf{F} the Stokes formula may be written

$$\oint_C F_1 dx + F_2 dy + F_3 dz = \iint_S (F_3 - F_2) dy dz + (F_1 - F_3) dz dx + (F_2 - F_1) dx dy$$

where $F_1 = \partial F / \partial y$ and so on. When the surface S lies in the xy plane this equation reduces to Green's formula.

$$\oint_C F_1 dx + F_2 dy = \iint_S (F_{2x} - F_{1y}) dx dy$$

The latter relation is proved for regions S of simple shape deduced from Stokes's formula may be deduced.

In the formula of Gauss (also called the Divergence Theorem) V is a piecewise smooth volume bounded by a smooth or piecewise smooth surface S and \mathbf{n} is the exterior normal to S . In terms of the components of \mathbf{F} the Gauss formula may be written

$$\iiint_V F_1 dy dz + F_2 dz dx + F_3 dx dy = \iiint_V (F_x + F_y + F_z) dx dy dz$$

5. CALCULUS OF VECTORS

Functions defined by integrals. Many functions already become definite integrals which may be defined in terms of the definite integrals of all partial derivatives. Certain definite integrals may be used to define important elementary functions which are frequently applied. For example the gamma function may be defined by

$$\Gamma(x) = \int_0^\infty e^{-t} t^{x-1} dt$$

for $x > 0$. The Beta function is defined by

$$B(x, y) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(x)\Gamma(y)} \int_0^1 t^{x-1} (1-t)^{y-1} dt$$

The properties of these functions with the help of the method indicated above, which is a theory of the function $\Gamma(x)$ and $B(x, y)$. See the section GAMMA FUNCTION.

In general $f(x)$ is a function of x such that $a \leq x \leq b$ and $f(x)$ is continuous.

$$g(x) = \int_a^x f(t) dt$$

is a well-defined function of x . When $f(x)$ is a continuous function defined by the function $f(x)$ the function $g(x)$ may be calculated by the formula

$$g'(x) = \frac{d}{dx} \int_a^x f(t) dt = f(x)$$

This process is called differentiation under the integral sign. It is valid in case f and $\partial f / \partial x$ are continuous in (x, t) for $c < x \leq d$, $a \leq t \leq b$ where a and b are finite and even in more general cases. However in the following simple example it gives a wrong result

$$f(x, t) = x e^{-t} \\ g(x) = \int_0^\infty f(x, t) dt$$

$$\text{Then } \int_0^\infty \partial f / \partial x dt = \int_0^\infty e^{-t} (3x^2 - 2tx^4) dt$$

which is 0 when $x = 0$ although $g(x) = x$ for all x .

Approximate and mechanical integration. The definition of the definite integral itself gives a means of calculating its value approximately. There remain the questions of a suitable choice of the function $f(x)$ and the rule in the formula (1). It is usual to divide the interval $[a, b]$ into a number n of equal parts of length h (Fig. 2). If the points x_i are taken at the midpoints of the subintervals one obtains the midpoint formula

$$S \approx h \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i + (-1/2)h) \quad (11)$$

For a curve that is concave downward this gives the largest value.

Another formula called the trapezoidal rule is derived by calculating the area below a polygon inscribed in the graph of $f(x)$ (Fig. 3). This formula is

$$T = \frac{h}{2} [f(a) + f(b) + 2 \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} f(x_i + h)] \quad (12)$$



Fig. 2

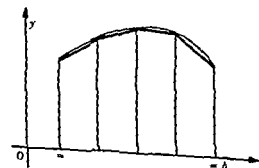


Fig. 3

integrand of $L(C)$ is the length $|T(u)|$ of this vector. Thus one may write $ds = |T(u)| du$ where s is the arc length measured from some convenient point on C .

Let $A(x, y)$ be a bounded continuous function defined on a set containing a plane curve C having finite length. Then A determines three functions of C called line integrals whose symbols and definitions follow.

$$\int_C A dx = \int_a^b A[f(u), g(u)] f'(u) du$$

$$\int_C A dy = \int_a^b A[f(u), g(u)] g'(u) du$$

$$\int_C A ds = \int_a^b A[f(u), g(u)] |T(u)| du$$

If $-C$ denotes the curve C traversed in the opposite direction

$$\int_{-C} A dx = - \int_C A dx$$

$$\int_{-C} A dy = - \int_C A dy$$

$$\int_{-C} A ds = \int_C A ds$$

so that a reversal of the orientation of C changes the signs of the first two but not of the third of these functions.

The extension of the preceding definitions to curves in 3-space is made in an obvious way. An important application of line integrals is to express the work done by a force field on a moving particle. Thus if a force field $F(x, y, z)$ has components $F_1(x, y, z)$, $F_2(x, y, z)$ and $F_3(x, y, z)$ in the directions of the x , y and z axes, then the work done by the field on a particle moving on a curve C is

$$W = \int_C F_1 dx + F_2 dy + F_3 dz$$

When T is the tangent vector of C the work W can be expressed in terms of the dot product as

$$W = \int_C F \cdot T du$$

If T_1 denotes the tangent vector of unit length

$$W = \int_C F \cdot T_1 ds$$

To pass from curves to surfaces replace the open interval $a < u < b$ by a bounded connected open set D in a uv plane which may be called the parameter plane. The domain D can be restricted to be of sufficiently simple shape so that every function which is continuous and bounded in D is integrable over D as a multiple integral. For example D may be the interior of a circle or of a rectangle. Then a surface S in 3-space is defined by a triple

$$x = f(u, v)$$

$$y = g(u, v)$$

$$z = h(u, v)$$

of functions continuous on D . Such a surface is called smooth in case the functions f , g and h have

continuous first partial derivatives in D and the three Jacobians

$$J_1 = \frac{\partial(y, z)}{\partial(u, v)} \quad J_2 = \frac{\partial(z, x)}{\partial(u, v)} \quad J_3 = \frac{\partial(x, y)}{\partial(u, v)}$$

are never simultaneously zero. A smooth surface has at every point a nonzero normal vector $J(u, v)$ with components J_1, J_2, J_3 and length $|J|$.

The area of a smooth surface S may be defined by the integral

$$\sigma(S) = \iint_D |J(u, v)| du dv$$

and it is always finite when the vector J has bounded length.

If $A(x, y, z)$ is a bounded continuous function defined on a set containing a surface S with finite area, four surface integrals can be defined as follows.

$$\iint_S A dy dz = \iint_D A[f(u, v), g(u, v), h(u, v)] J_1(u, v) du dv$$

$$\iint_S A dz dx = \iint_D A[f(u, v), g(u, v), h(u, v)] J_2(u, v) du dv$$

$$\iint_S A dx dy = \iint_D A[f(u, v), g(u, v), h(u, v)] J_3(u, v) du dv$$

$$\iint_S A d\sigma = \iint_D A[f(u, v), g(u, v), h(u, v)] |J(u, v)| du dv$$

If $F(x, y, z)$ is a vector field with components F_1, F_2, F_3 and n denotes the unit vector normal to S with components $J_1/|J|, J_2/|J|, J_3/|J|$ then a combination

$$\iint_S F_1 dy dz + F_2 dz dx + F_3 dx dy \quad (8)$$

of the first three kinds of surface integral may also be written in the form

$$\iint_S F \cdot n d\sigma \quad (9)$$

where $F \cdot n$ is the dot product. The expression (8) or (9) is referred to as the integral of the vector F over the side of the surface S to which the vector n points. The integral over the opposite side of S is denoted by

$$\iint_S F_1 dy dz + F_2 dz dx + F_3 dx dy \quad (10)$$

and $\frac{\partial(y, z)}{\partial(u, v)} = -J_1$ and so on.

and (10) is the negative of (8). The last integral in (7) however is independent of a choice of side of the surface.

The important formulas of Stokes and of Gauss are expressed in terms of line and surface integral and the triple or volume integral analogous to the double integral. They are

interval $[a, b]$ has measure zero in case it can be
 divided into a sequence (finite or infinite) of intervals,
 the sum of whose lengths is arbitrarily small. Also
 a function $f(x)$ is said to be negligible on
 an interval $[a, b]$ if $\int_a^b f(x) dx = 0$ as in
 Fig. 4. The Riemann integral of a negligible function
 is zero. The above definition of negligible
 function is in Lebesgue's sense. It is not the
 same as the definition of a negligible function in
 the theory of Lebesgue integration. The definition
 of negligible function in the theory of Lebesgue
 integration is: A function $f(x)$ is negligible on
 an interval $[a, b]$ if $\int_a^b f(x) dx = 0$ for every
 subinterval of $[a, b]$.

$$\int_a^b g(x) dx = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_a^b f_n(x) dx \quad (16)$$

In the definition of $f_n(x)$ in (16) a negligible
 function $f(x)$ is replaced by a negligible function
 $f_n(x)$. The definition of negligible function in
 the theory of Lebesgue integration is: A function
 $f(x)$ is negligible on an interval $[a, b]$ if
 $\int_a^b f(x) dx = 0$ for every subinterval of $[a, b]$.
 The definition of negligible function in the theory
 of Lebesgue integration is: A function $f(x)$ is
 negligible on an interval $[a, b]$ if $\int_a^b f(x) dx = 0$
 for every subinterval of $[a, b]$.

$$\int_a^b g(x) dx \quad (17)$$

If $f_n(x)$ is a negligible function, then $\int_a^b f_n(x) dx = 0$.
 If $f_n(x)$ is a negligible function, then $\int_a^b f_n(x) dx = 0$.
 If $f_n(x)$ is a negligible function, then $\int_a^b f_n(x) dx = 0$.

$$\int_a^b g(x) dx$$

A function $f(x)$ is negligible on an interval $[a, b]$ if
 $\int_a^b f(x) dx = 0$ for every subinterval of $[a, b]$.

$$g(x) = \frac{|g(x)| + g(x)}{2}$$

$$g(x) = \frac{|g(x)| - g(x)}{2}$$

It may be

$$\int_a^b g(x) dx = \int_a^b g^+(x) dx - \int_a^b g^-(x) dx$$

In the definition of negligible function, the function
 $f(x)$ is replaced by a negligible function $f_n(x)$.
 The definition of negligible function in the theory
 of Lebesgue integration is: A function $f(x)$ is
 negligible on an interval $[a, b]$ if $\int_a^b f(x) dx = 0$
 for every subinterval of $[a, b]$.

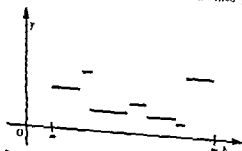


Fig. 4

Lebesgue's definition of negligible function is
 more general than the definition of negligible
 function in the theory of Riemann integration.
 The definition of negligible function in the theory
 of Lebesgue integration is: A function $f(x)$ is
 negligible on an interval $[a, b]$ if $\int_a^b f(x) dx = 0$
 for every subinterval of $[a, b]$.

The definition of negligible function in the theory
 of Lebesgue integration is: A function $f(x)$ is
 negligible on an interval $[a, b]$ if $\int_a^b f(x) dx = 0$
 for every subinterval of $[a, b]$.

Other definitions of negligible function. If $f(x)$ is a
 negligible function on an interval $[a, b]$, then $\int_a^b f(x) dx = 0$.

$$S = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} f_n(x) [\alpha(x) - \alpha(x_{n-1})]$$

Then the limit $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n$ is called the Stieltjes
 integral of $f(x)$ with respect to $\alpha(x)$ and is
 denoted by

$$\int_a^b f(x) d\alpha(x)$$

It has many of the properties of the Riemann
 integral. In addition, it may take on values
 which are not real numbers. For example, if
 $f(x) = e^{ix}$ and $\alpha(x) = x$, then $\int_a^b f(x) d\alpha(x) = e^{ib} - e^{ia}$.

$$\int_a^b f(x) d\alpha(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} f(x_n) [\alpha(x_n) - \alpha(x_{n-1})]$$

With some restrictions, the Stieltjes integral
 may be extended to the case where $\alpha(x)$ is a
 function of bounded variation. The definition of
 the Stieltjes integral is: A function $f(x)$ is
 integrable with respect to $\alpha(x)$ if the limit
 $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n$ exists.

In the case where $\alpha(x) = x$, the Stieltjes
 integral reduces to the Riemann integral. The
 Stieltjes integral is denoted by $\int_a^b f(x) d\alpha(x)$.

Other definitions of negligible function. If $f(x)$ is a
 negligible function on an interval $[a, b]$, then $\int_a^b f(x) dx = 0$.
 The definition of negligible function in the theory
 of Lebesgue integration is: A function $f(x)$ is
 negligible on an interval $[a, b]$ if $\int_a^b f(x) dx = 0$
 for every subinterval of $[a, b]$.

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 l'intégration*, 1917; L. V. G. Goursat, *Théorie
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 and Measure*, 1916.

It gives too small a value for a curve that is concave downward

The error in the approximation may sometimes be reduced without increasing the number of subintervals by use of the parabolic rule (Simpson's rule). To obtain the formula the subarcs of the graph of $f(x)$ are replaced by arcs of parabolas rather than by line segments. Since three points determine a parabola (with vertical axis) the interval $[a, b]$ is divided into an even number n of subintervals. The area under the parabola passing through the points on the graph of $f(x)$ having abscissas

$$a + (2i - 2)h \quad a + (2i - 1)h \quad a + 2ih$$

18

$$\frac{h}{3} \{ f[a + (2i - 2)h] + 4f[a + (2i - 1)h] + f[a + 2ih] \}$$

so the parabolic rule gives the approximation

$$P = \frac{h}{3} \left\{ f(a) + f(b) + 2 \sum_{i=1}^{\frac{n}{2}-1} f(a + 2ih) + 4 \sum_{i=1}^{\frac{n}{2}} f[a + (2i - 1)h] \right\} \quad (13)$$

When a function $f(x)$ is given only by a table its integral is most simply computed by one of these formulas or a similar formula

When a function $f(x)$ is given by a graph mechanical means may be used to calculate associated areas. One such means is the polar planimeter which registers on a rotating wheel the area enclosed by a closed curve around which a tracing point is passed. The integrator invented by Abdank Abakanowicz is designed to draw the graph of an indefinite integral of $f(x)$ when a tracing point is passed over the graph of $f(x)$. These simple devices were the forerunners of more complex machines designed to solve differential equations such as the differential analyzer of Vannevar Bush. For large scale computations involving formulas such as (11), (12) or (13) a digital computer may be preferred.

Other methods of integration. The method of differentiation under the integral sign is often convenient for the evaluation of definite integrals even when other methods are available. For example let

$$g(x) = \int_0^{\infty} e^{-xt} dt = \frac{e - 1}{x}$$

$$\text{Then } g(x) = \int_0^{\infty} te^{-xt} dt = \frac{ae}{x^2} - \frac{e - 1}{x^2}$$

$$\text{If } g(x) = \int_0^{\infty} \frac{dt}{t^2 + x^2} = \frac{1}{x} \arctan(a/x)$$

$$g(x) = -2x \int_0^{\infty} \frac{dt}{(t^2 + x^2)^2} = -\frac{1}{x^2} \arctan(a/x) - \frac{a}{x(a^2 + x^2)}$$

Another example in which the conditions for validity of the method hold though they are more difficult to verify is given by

$$g(x) = \int_0^{\infty} e^{-t} \frac{\sin t}{t} dt \quad 0 \leq x < \infty$$

$$\text{Then } g'(x) = -\int_0^{\infty} e^{-t} \sin t dt = \frac{-1}{1 + x^2}$$

as can be shown by integration by parts twice. Hence $g(x) = -\arctan x + C$ and $C = \pi/2$ since

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} g(x) = 0$$

In particular

$$g(0) = \int_0^{\infty} \frac{\sin t}{t} dt = \pi/2$$

In case an indefinite integral is not elementary but the integrand is representable by an infinite series the method of integrating term by term gives a representation for the integral which may be useful for purposes of approximation. For example

$$Si(x) = \int_0^x \frac{\sin t}{t} dt = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n x^{2n+1}}{(2n+1)^2 (2n)!}$$

Certain definite integrals may be readily evaluated by means of contour integrals that is integrals of analytic functions taken along curves in the complex plane.

Integral of Lebesgue. In the study of the space of real functions defined for example on the interval $a \leq x \leq b$ it is frequently useful to take

$$\int_a^b |f(x) - g(x)| dx \quad (14)$$

as the distance between the functions f and g . This distance already has a meaning when f and g are Riemann integrable that is bounded and not too discontinuous in the sense specified for the Riemann integral. There is no generally useful extension of the concept of integral to apply to all real functions on $[a, b]$ but it is desirable to extend it to apply to the functions obtained from the continuous ones by certain limiting processes. In particular it is desirable to have correspond to each sequence $\{f_n\}$ of functions satisfying the Cauchy condition for convergence in terms of the distance (14) namely

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_a^b |f_n(x) - f(x)| dx = 0 \quad (15)$$

a function g which is integrable (in the extended sense) and for which

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_a^b |f_n(x) - g(x)| dx = 0$$

An extended definition of integral having this property was given by H. L. Lebesgue in his thesis. It made obsolete many of the complicated extensions of the Riemann integral which had been previously proposed. Following Lebesgue's example mathematicians have proposed other ways of defining the integral which are equivalent to that of Lebesgue. For extended definitions which can be stated quite simply at least for the case of a bounded function $g(x)$ a first definition is a point set S in the

Hobson *Theory of Functions of a Real Variable* 2d ed 1927 B O Peirce *A Short Table of Integrals* 3d ed 1929

Integument

The skin or outer covering of the body together with its various derivatives such as hair glands scales. It consists basically of two tissues an outer epidermis and an inner corium or dermis. The lower layer of the dermis in man and many other animals rests on a fatty subcutaneous tissue or hypodermis which smooths out the contours of the underlying bone and muscle. The skin with its derivatives and associated hypodermis comprises an organ system which protects the underlying tissues and according to the mode of life of the animal may serve important functions in respiration excretion water balance protective coloration sexual recognition and others.

Epidermis This is the outer portion of the skin. It is a many layered epithelium comprising characteristically two distinctive strata of cells the stratum germinativum or basal layer which rests on the dermis and the outer stratum corneum. In man the thick skin of the palms and soles shows two intermediate layers the stratum granulosum and the stratum lucidum interposed between the stratum germinativum and stratum corneum (Fig 1).

Stratum germinativum The innermost stratum of the epidermis is the germinativum or Malpighian layer. It rests on the dermis and proliferates cells which are added continuously to the outer layers. Its basal cells are cylindrical and oriented perpendicularly to the surface of the skin. In most verte-

brates daughter cells of this layer show a gradual transition to the more flattened cells of the stratum corneum. In mammals however there is a striking contrast between the live cells of the stratum germinativum and the flattened cornified cells of the outermost layers of the skin.

Stratum corneum This the outer layer of flattened keratinized cells of the epidermis is particularly well developed in the higher vertebrates. It is contributed by cells proliferated from the stratum germinativum. As the cells move upward they become flattened and their contents transform almost entirely into keratin. The outer layers of keratinized epithelium are progressively cast off as new cells arrive from below.

Dermis The deeper layer of the skin is the dermis corium or cutis a dense connective tissue richly supplied with blood vessels nerves and associated sensory organs (see SENSE ORGAN). In it are embedded the glands of the skin and other epidermal derivatives such as hairs and feathers. The upper surface of the dermis the soft papillary layer is in contact with the stratum germinativum of the epidermis and is thrown into folds and projections interdigitating with local thickenings of the stratum germinativum. The papillary layer grades into the denser reticular layer below. The latter contains fewer cells and comprises a dense feltwork of collagenous fibers variously oriented but chiefly parallel to the skin surface. Elastic fibers are less numerous forming a looser network which is most prominent about the hair follicles and sweat and sebaceous glands. Collagenous and elastic fibers of the dermis are continuous with the fatty subcutaneous tissue below. See FEATHER (BIRD) HAIR.

Pigment cells The color of the skin and its derivatives is due largely to the presence of distinctive pigment forming cells or chromatophores in the epidermis and dermis. These cells are variously designated according to the color and chemical characteristics of their pigments. Chief among them are melanocytes containing granules of melanoprotein or melanin an oxidation product of the amino acid tyrosine which in different cells may range in color from black through brown red and yellow. Xanthophores or iridiocytes filled with indolent crystals of xanthin and a variety of lipophores containing yellow red and orange types of pigment. Melanin pigments are chiefly responsible for the color of human skin although carotene and hemoglobin contribute notably. See CHROMATOPHORE.

Melanoblast A prospective melanin producing cell the melanoblast. Originating from the neural crest the melanoblasts migrate to all regions of the body. During their dispersal they are indistinguishable from the cells with which they are associated but their presence may be detected by means of proper transplantation or tissue culture experiments. In most vertebrates they assume positions in the dermis and at the dermo-epidermal

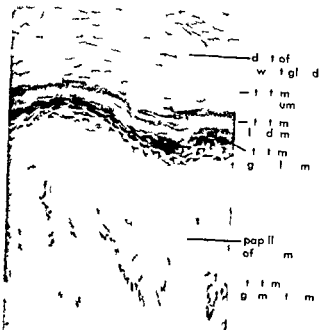


Fig 1 The characteristic structure of the skin of the human finger as seen in cross section at high magnification (F. M. J. F. N. D. Z. and W. F. W. D. I. T. I. book of Histology McGraw-Hill 1949)

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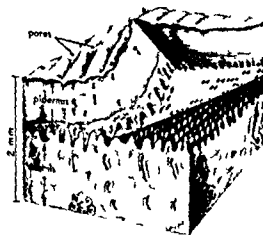
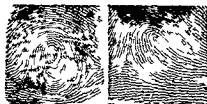


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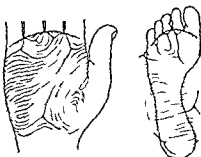


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ULTRASTRUCTURE OF SKIN

This aspect concerns details of submicroscopic structures of cellular morphology too small to be seen with a light microscope. The electron microscope affording magnifications of 2000-200 000 and ancillary techniques must be employed in this study.

Epidermal cell cytoplasm contains in addition to the usual components narrow (about 50 Å or 0.005 μ wide) filaments which appear to transform in the stratum granulosum into the solid keratin of the cornified layers. Grouping of these filaments or tonofilaments into tonofibrils increases with distance from the basement membrane. They are most prominent in thick skins and least in thin skins. Tonofilaments made up of prekeratin protein remain intracytoplasmic even within the intracellular bridges or Bizzozero nodules. They terminate at electron dense areas subjacent to each cell membrane. The two cell membranes within a bridge are separated by a 300 Å wide band of amorphous material which changes in the stratum lucidum or lower stratum corneum and is removed as cells desquamate (Fig. 3).

The basement membrane is a 350 Å thick sheet of amorphous material and associated filaments which completely separates the epidermis from the dermis or corium. Collagen fibrils each displaying a characteristic macromolecular striation are found

individually each 300-800 Å wide or grouped as fibers in all intercellular spaces of the corium. See ANGSTROM HISTOLOGY SKIN see also MICROSCOPE ELECTRON [C.C.S.]

REGENERATION

The skin of man and other mammals has a highly developed capacity for regeneration. The epidermis, or outer layer is continuously replacing itself through proliferation of its lowermost cells as the cornified epidermal cells from its surface are lost through normal wear. The epidermis of the sole of a rat's foot for instance undergoes complete replacement in about 3 weeks.

Cutaneous wounds. Healing of cutaneous wounds is a regenerative process. If a small patch of epidermis is scraped off and a few scattered fragments of its lowermost layer are left, epidermis will regenerate rapidly by proliferation of the remaining cells. If no epidermal fragments are left, a new layer of epidermis will appear over the denuded area as a result of an inward movement of epidermis from the wound margins. Multiplication of the cells present in the new epidermis restores its thickness to normal.

Fingerprints are a system of ridgelike elevations of the epidermis are regenerated accurately even after complete destruction of the epidermis provided that the underlying tissue is undamaged. See FINGERPRINT.

Deep wounds. The capacity of the dermis the tough fibrous inner layer of the skin to regenerate is unfortunately incomplete. Lost superficial levels of the dermis are replaced by the activity of connective tissue cells which lay down new collagen fibers. If the full thickness of the dermis is excised or destroyed as in third degree burns it is not regenerated. All that the body can do is to produce a thick layer of fibrous tissue which eventually becomes covered by epidermis. The final product is scar tissue and is quite unlike normal skin. Scar tissue lacks resilience and mobility; the orientation of its fibers is abnormal and the epidermis never becomes firmly united to it. In the early stages of maturation scar tissue undergoes contracture so that the margins of small wounds are brought together and only small scars result. Skin grafting is the only satisfactory treatment for extensive loss or destruction of the full thickness of the skin in man. Skin is an easy tissue to graft because of its proliferative capacity; however the graft takes permanently only if the skin donor is the patient himself or his identical twin.

Hair. Regeneration of hair depends on regeneration of hair follicles. Hair follicles are specialized projections of the epidermis into the dermis. They will regenerate completely provided that a small basal fragment remains undamaged. This fragment must include the papilla, a dermal structure lying at the bottom of the follicle. Only in a few animals such as the rabbit is under special experimental conditions does scar tissue ever give rise to new hairs.

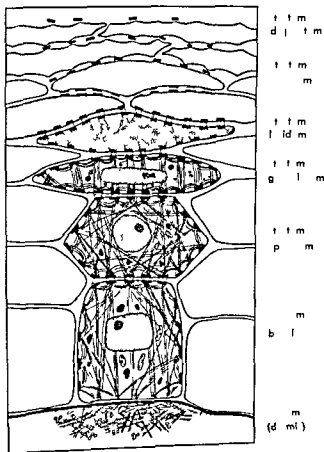


Fig. 3 Schematic drawing of the morphological differentiation of the epidermis.

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tw k d (2) local y t ms ot asso ted with
the nation wd teleph twork B th type
ra g e f m s m p l t e m p l n s c o p

Telephone utilizing systems Int m m u n t
g s y t e m t l z g i t r u m e t s a c t e d w i t h
th nat n w d e tel phon tw k lly em p l y
t l ph o e q p p e d w a n m b e r f k e y t h t
a p r t c l r t l ph c a n b e c o n t e d t h e t
a y o f e r l t l o f f i l i (or PBX e
t e) o r t a n i t e r m l S y t m s e m p l o y
i g h k e y - e q p p e d t l e p h t g t h w i t h
a n y r l y l m p d t h e r r e l a t e d a p p r a t s
n d w g e a l l e d k y t l p h e s y t m o r n
s o m f m k y e q p m t T h y r f u r n h e d i n
w i d r t y f e m b o d m t F a m p l e t h e
k) m a y f m i t g r l p t f t h t l e p h n e
s e t r m a y b e p a t l y m t e d S g n a l l a m p s
w h h f h t i d e t e i c o m i n g c e l l s , l i g h t s t d
i l y d g t d w k w h l a l s
b e g h l d m y m e a u f o m I n o m e k e y



Fig 1 S i b k y t l p h o n (B H T l p h l b
o r o m e)

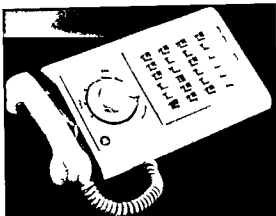


Fig 2 T h r t y b t t k y t t (B H T l p h l b
t)

t l e p h e (F g s 1 a d 2) the k y b t t o n s a r e
m d f t r a p a e t p l a s t d a r l l m i n a t d
f o m b t h t h l s e r v g a s v i s u a l s i g n a l s
S e T E L E P H O N E T E L E P H O N E P R I V A T E B R A N C H E X
C H A N G E (P B X)

T h l r g e r k e y e q p m e n t o f t e t k e t h e f o m
o f k e y t r t w h a r e w o o d m t l b o e s r
n g d f d e k t o p m o u t g (e F g 2) S e r
t m t h e k e y s l m p n d d e s i g n t i o n a r a r
r a g e d a m d u l a h a s s o t h t a d d i t i a l n i t s
n b d d l a t f d e r e d O i h k e y e q i p m e t s
e d g n d f h o r n t l i t l a t i o n a n p n
i n g a t b l e t p

Optional features Key equipments oft n pro
v i d e f o r w d e i e t y f p t n a l f e t u r T h e
m r e m p r a t i f t h e a r d c u d h e e

H l d O e k y w h n p e t e d m m n t i l y
p l a s h l d b i d g e (u a l l y r s t) c r s t h e
l i e t h t t h e u e m y t e m p a r l y t r n s f h s
t e l p h e s e t o n i t e c o m l i e r t a t h e r e n
t r l f i e l i P B X e t e n w i t h u t c u g
d c o e t i n f t h e i g n a l c a l l H e c a n t h e r
t n t o t h e o r i g i l l b y r p r a t i n g t h e r g n
n l l i k e y

I t c o m s i g n a l g B y d l i g a o n r t w o
d g t c o d b y p e a t i n g p a r t i u l r k y p a r
t l r t e l e p h e b e n g

C e l l g B y m l t a u l y o p e t n g
e v a l s g n l g k y g o p o t l e p h c a n
b r n g a d l l w h o a s w r c a n e e

P e s t f e c c l l g B y d i a l i g a p a r t c u
l o n e - o r t w o - d g t d e p c a r r n g d g r u p o f
t e l p h o e c n b r n g m u l t a e o l y n d l l w h
a s w e a c n e e

C m p n W h e t h e r t l e p h e e r v e d b y t h e
a m k y e q p m n t i d i a l e d d f d b u y t h
c l l e b y n t h n g g u p a m p n e c o n
n e c t A s o o a s t h e l l e d t e l p h o e f e
i t w l l b e r u g a u t m a t i c a l l y d t h e w a i t g
c a l l e r w i l l b e c n t d h e d f a y t h e r w h
m y h a e t r e d t o r a c h t h t p r t c u l r t l p h o e
i t h m n t m

A d d - o I f a l l s r e c d f o m a c t a l - o f f i e
l e r P B X e t n i n (t h a t i s n o t i a n t e r e m
l) n d t h e l l e d p a r t y w h s t a d d o t h r t l e

of twins fraternal (two egg) and identical (one egg) Dermatoglyphics thus are useful in diagnosing the types of twins and in analyzing cases of questioned paternity Among different racial groups the similar or discrepant trends of variation have been used to analyze racial affinities Trends of variation are unlike in right and left hands and the fact that they differ in accordance with functional handedness indicates an inborn predisposition of handedness See EPIDERMAL RIDGES FINGERPRINT HUMAN GENETICS SKIN [H CU]

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Intelligence

Defined as the ability to learn to carry on abstract thinking or to adapt to the environment

Intelligence tests However intelligence is defined the ability is almost universally measured by adaptations of the testing method invented by the French psychologist Alfred Binet in 1904 In this method the subject is given a variety of tasks involving such activities as manipulation of symbols the perception of analogies and complex relations the comprehension of causal connections and the solution of verbal and mathematical problems The technique assumes a common background of experience with the mental operations involved so that differences in performance presumably reflect variations in ability rather than in trained achievement but in actual practice the distinction is difficult to maintain Thus intelligence test scores show substantial relationships with highest grade reached in school and with measures of academic achievement Although undoubtedly contaminated by effects of training and experience the intelligence test nevertheless provides a better index of potential ability than any other method presently known to science

Intelligence quotient The results of intelligence tests are ordinarily expressed by comparing the person's score with the average for his age group The measure most commonly employed for this purpose especially with children is the intelligence quotient or IQ This is a ratio multiplied by 100 to avoid decimals of the child's mental age that is the average age at which children achieve the score obtained by the subject and the child's actual or chronological age Intelligence quotients of 60 or below are usually interpreted as indicating mental deficiency while those of 120 or above as reflecting superior mental ability (see MENTAL DEFICIENCY)

Viewed developmentally intellectual capacity appears to grow at a declining rate until about fifteen years of age Thereafter although the person may obviously increase his store of knowledge and thereby his skill in the solution of problems in particular areas there seems to be no further gain in absolute reasoning power or capacity to perceive complex relations

Components of intelligence The nature of intelligence has been investigated primarily through

statistical studies of the relationships between scores in various kinds of mental task On the basis of such work some investigators following the lead of the English psychologist C Spearman conclude that intelligence is best described as a single general factor which enters in greater or lesser degree into all mental activities A contrasting view championed by the American psychologist L L Thurstone posits a series of six primary factors labeled number verbal pace word fluency reasoning and rote memory The six factors nevertheless show appreciable relations with one another especially at the younger age levels

Since World War II research on the nature of intelligence has shifted from a statistical analysis of content toward the experimental study of cognitive processes such as innovation concept formation and the perception of causality

Bases of intelligence Little is known regarding the physiological and neurological foundations of intelligence Comparative studies of different animal species suggest a gross relationship between ability in problem solving and the size of the cerebral cortex the outer layer of gray matter of the brain but this correlation does not appear to hold within species Injury of cortical tissue in both animals and men produces a loss in mental function Mental impairment may also be brought about through drugs endocrine malfunction low oxygen supply to the brain or even prolonged isolation from external stimuli for example through immersion of the body for several hours in water at body temperature in a soundproof and light proof chamber

Attempts to identify the relative contribution and interaction of genetic and environmental factors in the development of intelligence have been made with both animal and human subjects At the human level the classic studies of H H Newman and his colleagues indicate that identical twins reared apart show differences in IQ almost twice those obtained for identical twins reared together In the 1950s a growing body of research evidence points to the importance of early experience both before and after birth in the development of intelligence The nature of the intervening mechanisms is not yet known but climatic endocrine and nutritional factors appear to be most relevant in the prenatal period whereas influences associated with prematurity and stimulus deprivation seem most powerful at birth and immediately after See BEHAVIOR AND HEREDITY LEARNING THEORIES

At later age levels greater attention is being paid to the role of social and motivational factors It is becoming increasingly clear for example that mental development as measured by intelligence tests varies markedly as a function of the family's cultural background and socioeconomic position No does it appear likely that the so-called culture free tests will be entirely exempt from this effect Rather the evidence suggests that along with mental ability and the effects of intelligence

tests also reflect the value which the places on intellectual activity and human general need to achieve objectives (see MOTIVATION)

Despite the complexity of the phenomenon the concept of general intelligence and the standardized techniques for its measurement continue to be highly useful in such practical problems as the diagnosis of mental deficiency the prediction of academic potential and success and the selection of personnel in industry and the military services

See PSYCHOLOGY PHYSIOLOGICAL AND EXPERIMENTAL (UB)

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Intercommunicating system

A telephonic system providing direct communication between telephone numbers in the same premises of a short network into a common switching system of two general types (1) those utilizing regular telephones associated with the national wide telephone network and (2) local system not associated with the national wide telephone network Both types range from simple to complex in type

Telephone utilizing systems Intercommunicating system utilizing in premise a local switch with the national wide telephone network usually employs telephones equipped with a number of key switches a private telephone branch (PBX) extension or to a central office line (PBX extension) or to a central office system employing a key-equipment telephone together with any relay lamp and the related apparatus and wiring re-called key telephonic system or in some forms key equipment is a separate furnished in a wide variety of embodiment For example the key may form an integral part of the telephone terminal or be a separate unit Signaling lamp which is used in the signaling light instead of ringing or a bell and which will be extinguished may be a means for forming some key



Fig 1 Six-button key telephone (BNTI telephone label or one)

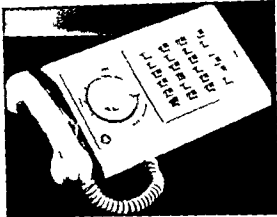


Fig 2 Thirty-button key telephone (BNTI telephone label)

telephonic (Fig 1 and 2) the key buttons are made of transparent plastic and are illuminated from beneath thus also serving as visual signals See TELEPHONE TELEPHONE PRIVATE BRANCH EXCHANGE (PBX)

The lighting key equipment often takes the form of key turrets which are wood or metal boxes arranged in a row on top of the telephone (see Fig 2) Sometimes the key lamps and designations are arranged on a modular basis that additional unit can be added later if desired Other key equipment is designed for horizontal installation in a open position on top

Optional features Key equipments often provide for a wide variety of optional features The main requirement is the standard code

Hold One key when operated momentarily produces a hold bridge (usually a resistor) across the line so that the user may temporarily transfer his telephone setting and line connection to a central office line or PBX extension without causing disconnection of the signal call He can then return to the original line by repeating the original line key

Intercom signal By dialing a one-to-two-digit code by pressing a particular key on the telephone can be used

Conferencing By simultaneously pressing several signaling keys a group of telephones can be connected to each other

Prescreened calls By dialing a particular one-to-two-digit code a prearranged group of telephones can be simultaneously and all who work can be reached

Compo When another telephone served by the same key equipment is dialed and found busy the caller is notified by a "busy" lamp on the console As soon as the called telephone is free it will be rung automatically and the waiting line will be connected ahead of any other line that tried to reach that particular telephone in the meantime

Addo If a call is received from a central office line or PBX extension (that is, not a direct line) the dialing party will be added to the

phones served by the same key equipment to the connection he may do so by operating keys provided for the purpose. If he so desires he can then drop off the connection leaving the other party or parties connected.

Hands free talking A microphone a small loud speaker means for amplification a suitable transmission network to prevent howling a volume control and two control buttons (ON and OFF) permit two way conversation without lifting the regular handset from its cradle (see Fig 3). The handset can however be used in the usual way when desired. This arrangement can be associated with key telephones as well as with ordinary telephones.

Privacy Various arrangements are available whereby certain telephones which normally have access to a particular line can be denied access when privacy is desired during a particular conversation. One such arrangement utilizes one of the switchhook plungers which is so designed that it can be pulled upward above its normal position. The feature is automatically canceled when the handset is replaced on its cradle.

Executive access In some key equipments one or more telephones can be arranged so that an executive for example can obtain access to his subordinate telephones whether or not they are busy.

With such a large number of optional features available the necessary relay equipment to perform the various functions is usually designed on a building block basis for flexibility.

Particular applications Intercommunicating systems have also been developed to meet the need of particular applications such as residences and farms.



Fig 3 Key telephone arranged for hands free talking.

Residence intercommunicating systems may include such features as local signaling and talking hands free talking and door answering. The latter permits residents to converse with anyone who rings the doorbell from any telephone in the house.

Farm intercommunicating systems are designed to provide facilities for communicating between residence and barns including the ability to answer or originate calls via the telephone central office. At least one telephone is normally equipped for hands free operation and at least one loud ringing bell or its equivalent is usually provided for outdoor coverage in addition to the regular bells on each telephone.

Local systems Local intercommunicating systems not associated with the nationwide telephone network vary widely in size complexity and type of operation. In various forms they use most of the other features of telephone utilizing systems although with different technical characteristics.

Many such systems contain high gain amplifiers and permit voice paging by direct operation of loudspeakers at subordinate stations under control of a press to talk lever at a master station. Usually these loudspeakers serve also as dynamic microphones for speech in the opposite direction. Some systems make use of ordinary lighting circuits for voice transmission by using carrier principle to avoid the need for interstation cabling. [RFD]

Interface of phases

The boundary between any two phases. Among the three phases gas liquid and solid five types of interface are possible gas liquid gas solid liquid liquid liquid solid and solid solid. The abrupt transitions from one phase to another at these boundaries even though subject to the kinetic effects of molecular motion is statistically a surface only 1 or 2 molecule thick.

A unique property of the surfaces of the phases that adjoin at an interface is the surface energy which is the result of unbalanced molecular field existing at the surface of the two phases. Within the bulk of a given phase the intermolecular forces are uniform because each molecule enjoys a statistically homogeneous field produced by neighboring molecules of the same substance. Molecules in the surface of a phase however are surrounded on one side by an entirely different environment with the result that there are intermolecular forces that then tend to pull the surface molecules toward the bulk of the phase. A drop of water as a result tends to assume a spherical shape in order to reduce the surface area of the droplet to a minimum.

Surface energy At an interface there will be a difference in the tendency for each phase to attract its own molecule. Consequently there is always a minimum in the free energy of the surfaces at an interface the net amount of which is called the interfacial energy. At the water-air interface for example the difference in molecular field in the water and air is 72 erg/cm².

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Interface of phases

The boundary between any two phases. Among the three phases, gas, liquid and solid, five types of interfaces are possible: gas-liquid, gas-solid, liquid-liquid, liquid-solid and solid-solid. The abrupt transitions from one phase to another at these boundaries, even though subject to the kinetic effects of molecular motion, is statistically a surface only 1 or 2 m¹⁰ thick.

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If another prism is brought up to the first, as in Fig 4 a part of the light is transmitted through the combination. The fraction transmitted depends on the separation between the prisms. The reflectivity of a beam is as high as desired in a filter the prism hypotenuse is coated with a low index layer of this kind chosen to give the proper value of the reflectivity. This is covered with a high index

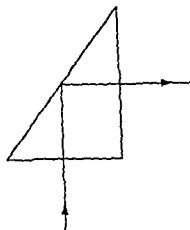


Fig 3 Total internal reflection in a glass prism

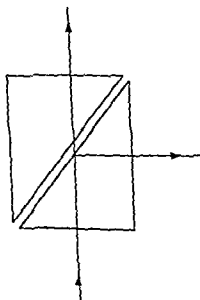


Fig 4 Fraction of total light reflected

layer whose thickness depends on the wavelength of the light. In the normal Fabry-Pérot filter the light is wedged by several low index layers and a second prism. The first frustrated reflection at the boundary between the first prism and the low index layer. The second reflection is at the boundary of the high index layer and the second low index layer. The thickness of the low index layer can be designed to give any value of reflectivity. The filter is lossless when the light also passes through

the layer. The resulting filter can be made to have a bandwidth of less than 6 Å. [RUSSEL] Bibliography: D. E. Gray (ed.) American Institute of Physics Handbook 1957

Interference of waves

The process whereby two or more waves of the same frequency or wavelength combine to form a wave whose amplitude is the sum of the amplitudes of the interfering waves. The interfering waves can be electromagnetic, acoustic, or water waves, or in fact any periodic disturbance.

The most striking feature of interference is the effect of adding two waves in which the trough of one wave coincides with the peak of another. If the two waves are of equal amplitude they can cancel each other out so that the resulting amplitude is zero. This is perhaps most dramatic in sound waves. It is possible to generate acoustic waves that arrive at a person's ears so as to cancel out noise that is disturbing him. In optics this cancellation can occur for particular wavelengths in a situation where white light is a source. The resulting light will appear colored. This gives rise to the iridescent colors of beetles' wings and mother-of-pearl where the substances involved are usually colorless or transparent.

Two beam interference. The quantitative features of the phenomenon can be demonstrated most easily by considering two interfering waves. The amplitude of the first wave at a particular point in space can be written

$$A = A_0 \sin(\omega t + \phi) \quad (1)$$

where A_0 is the peak amplitude and ω is 2π times the frequency. For the second wave

$$B = B_0 \sin(\omega t + \phi_2) \quad (2)$$

where $\phi_2 - \phi_1$ is the phase difference between the two waves. In interference the two waves are superimposed and the resulting wave can be written

$$A + B = A_0 \sin(\omega t + \phi_1) + B_0 \sin(\omega t + \phi_2) \quad (3)$$

This can be expanded to give

$$A + B = (A_0 \sin \phi_1 + B_0 \sin \phi_2) \cos \omega t + (A_0 \cos \phi_1 + B_0 \cos \phi_2) \sin \omega t \quad (4)$$

By setting

$$A_0 \sin \phi_2 + B_0 \sin \phi_1 = C \sin \phi_3 \quad (5)$$

and

$$A_0 \cos \phi_1 + B_0 \cos \phi_2 = C \cos \phi_3 \quad (6)$$

Equation (4) becomes

$$A + B = C \sin(\omega t + \phi) \quad (7)$$

where

$$C^2 = A_0^2 + B_0^2 + 2A_0 B_0 \cos(\phi_2 - \phi_1) \quad (8)$$

(See SUPERPOSITION PRINCIPLE OF) When C is less than A or B the interference is called destructive.

and thus the distribution of excited hydrogen over the disk can be determined

Most narrow band interference filters are based on the Fabry Perot interferometer (see INTERFEROMETRY) The Fabry Perot interference filter differs from the interferometer only in the thickness of the space between the partially reflecting layers In the interferometer this space can be several centimeters In the filter it is normally a few thousand angstroms In the simplest filter a glass plate is coated with a layer of silver which is covered by a layer of dielectric and in turn followed by another evaporated layer of semitransparent silver

Basic properties At all wavelengths at which the dielectric layer has an optical thickness of an integral number of half waves the filter will have a passband The number of half waves corresponding to a given passband is called the order of the passband The transmission T of the filter can be represented by the equation

$$T = \frac{t^2}{(1-r)^2 + 4r \sin^2(\delta/2)}$$

where r is the reflectivity of the silver film t the transmission of the film and

$$\delta = \frac{4\pi d}{\lambda} (n^2 - \sin^2 \theta)^{1/2} + 2\gamma$$

where d is the thickness of the dielectric layer n its refractive index λ the wavelength γ the phase shift experienced by the light at the metal dielectric boundary and θ is the angle of incidence

By inspection of this equation it is apparent that maxima occur when $\delta/2 = m\pi$ where m is an integer

Some of the quantities which are of interest to the user of these filters are (1) the peak transmission (2) the transmission between peaks (3) the bandwidth and (4) the angular field of view that is the angle through which the filter must be tilted to shift the wavelength of peak transmission a distance equal to the bandwidth

Each of these quantities can be determined theoretically from the preceding equation A typical filter has a peak transmission of 40% at its peak wavelength of 5461 Å a transmission between peaks of 0.2% a bandwidth of 100 Å and an angular field of view of 20° The numbers represent nearly the best that can be done with the simple metal dielectric filter

Multilayer types An increase in reflectivity can result in narrower bandwidths There are techniques by which high reflectivities can be achieved which are lossless that is which have no absorption This results in higher peak transmission and lower off peak transmission The first is the multilayer filter In this device the metal layers are replaced by a series of dielectric layers The boundary between two dielectric layers of refractive indices n_1 and n_2 has a reflecting power of perhaps

4% in the case of glass and air or less for two dielectrics whose indices are close together The value of the reflectivity r is given by the standard Fresnel reflection law

$$r = \left(\frac{n_1 - n_2}{n_1 + n_2} \right)^2$$

See REFLECTION (ELECTROMAGNETIC RADIATION)

By making several layers of alternate high and low index dielectric it is possible to reinforce the reflectivity of a single boundary and build it up by multiple reflection to any desired value It is necessary only that the layers be of such thickness that the reflections from successive boundaries are in phase When each layer is optically $\frac{1}{4}$ wavelength in thickness this reinforcement takes place A complete filter is sketched in Fig 1 It might con-

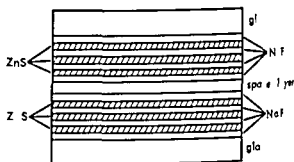


Fig 1 Schematic diagram of 7-layer solid Fabry Perot filter (From D E Gay ed *American Institute of Physics Handbook* McGraw Hill 1957)

sist of seven alternate layers of high and low index dielectric of a thickness of $\frac{1}{4}$ wavelength apiece followed by the dielectric spacer which is an integral number of half waves and which is followed by seven more $\frac{1}{4}$ wavelength layers The characteristics of such a filter are shown in Fig 2 For a seven layer reflection filter the reflectivity can be built up to 95% One would expect improvement over the metal filter and in fact the peak transmission of such a filter is as high as 80% and the bandwidth as low as 5 Å

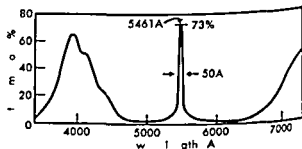


Fig 2 Transmission of filter shown in Fig 1 as a function of wavelength (From D E Gay ed *American Institute of Physics Handbook* McGraw Hill 1957)

Frustrated reflection A second technique is the use of frustrated total internal reflection for the partially reflecting layers of the filter Light is totally internally reflected when incident in the hypotenuse of a right angle prism as in Fig 3

waves in Eqs. (1) and (2) as A and B respectively. When the phase shift between them is zero the intensity of the resulting wave is

$$(A+B)^2 = A^2 + 2AB + B^2 \quad (16)$$

This would seem to be a violation of the first law of thermodynamics, since this is greater than the sum of the individual intensities. In any practical experiment however it turns out that the energy from the source is equally distributed in space. The excess energy which appears where the interference is constructive will disappear in those places where the energy is destructive. This is illustrated by the fringe pattern in Young's two-slit experiment. The energy on the screen from each slit is given by the expression

$$E_1 = \int A^2 dy \quad (17)$$

where A is the intensity of the light from each slit as given by Eq. (10). The intensity from the two slits without interference would be twice this value. The intensity with interference is given by the expression

$$E_2 = \int_0^{\lambda/2} 4A^2 \cos^2 \left[2\pi \left(\frac{y d}{\lambda} \right) \right] dy \quad (18)$$

The comparison between $2E_1$ and E_2 need be made only by a geometric argument. Let us consider the first integral. The integrand is a periodic function of y with period $\lambda/2$. The average value of \cos^2 over one period is $1/2$. Therefore the average value of the integrand is $2A^2 \cdot 1/2 = A^2$. The total energy is then

$$E_2 = 2 \int_0^{\lambda/2} A^2 dy = \frac{A^2 \lambda}{d} \quad (19)$$

which verifies that the energy is

$$E = \int_0^{\lambda/2} 4A^2 \cos^2 \left[2\pi \left(\frac{y d}{\lambda} \right) \right] dy \quad (20)$$

Thus we write

$$E = \frac{\lambda}{d} \int_0^{\lambda/2} 4A^2 \cos^2 \varphi d\varphi = \frac{4A_0^2 \lambda}{d} \quad (21)$$

Thus the total energy falling on the screen is not changed by the presence of the slits. The energy density at a particular point is, however, distributed. The most important feature of these waves is their interference pattern which is being treated by Young's experiment. The interference pattern is a beautiful demonstration of the wave nature of light. The interference pattern is a beautiful demonstration of the wave nature of light. The interference pattern is a beautiful demonstration of the wave nature of light.

The double-slit experimental provides a good illustration of Niels Bohr's principle of complementarity. For detailed information on this see QUANTUM MECHANICS.

Fresnel double mirror. Another way of splitting the light from the source is the Fresnel double mirror. This is illustrated in Fig. 2. Light from the slit S_0 falls on two mirrors M_1 and M_2 which are inclined to each other at an angle of the order of a degree. On a screen where the illumination from the two mirrors overlaps there will appear a set of interference fringes. These are the same as the fringes produced in the two-slit experiment since the light on the screen comes from the images of the slits S_1 and S_2 formed by the two mirrors and these two images are the equivalent of two slits.

Fresnel biprism. Another way of splitting the source is the Fresnel biprism. A thick edge of a cross-section of this device is shown in Fig. 3. The light from the slit at S is transmitted through the two halves of the prism to the screen. The beams from each half will strike the screen at a different angle and will appear to come from a source which is slightly displaced from the original slit. The two virtual slits are shown in the sketch at S_1 and S_2 . The separation will depend on the distance of the prism from the slit S and on the angle θ and index of refraction of the prism material. In Fig. 3 a is the distance of the slit from the biprism and d the distance of the biprism from the screen. The distance of the two virtual slits from the screen is then $a + l$. The separation of the two virtual slits

$$d = 2a(\mu - 1)\theta \quad (22)$$

where μ is the refractive index of the prism material.

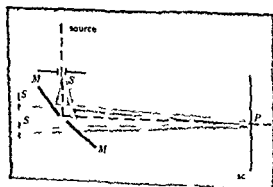


Fig. 2 Fresnel double-mirror interference

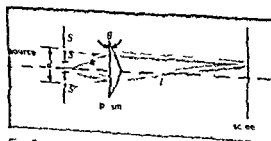


Fig. 3 Fresnel biprism interference

When it is greater it is called constructive. For electromagnetic radiation such as light the amplitude in Eq. (7) represents an electric field strength. This field is a vector quantity and is associated with a particular direction in space, the direction being generally at right angles to the direction in which the wave is moving. These electric vectors can be added even when they are not parallel. For a discussion of the resulting interference phenomena see POLARIZED LIGHT.

In the case of radio waves or microwaves which are generated with vacuum tube or solid state oscillators the frequency requirement for interference is easily met. In the case of light waves it is more difficult. Here the sources are generally radiating atoms. The smallest frequency spread from such a light source will still have a bandwidth of the order of 10 cycles. Such a bandwidth occurs in a single spectrum line and can be considered a result of the existence of wave trains no longer than 10^{-8} sec. The frequency spread associated with such a pulse can be written

$$\Delta f \approx \frac{1}{2\pi t} \quad (9)$$

where t is the pulse length. This means that the amplitude and phase of the wave which is the sum of the waves from two such sources will shift at random in times shorter than 10^{-8} sec. In addition the direction of the electric vector will shift in these same time intervals. Light which has such a random direction for the electric vector is termed unpolarized. When the phase shifts and direction changes of the light vectors from two sources are identical the sources are termed coherent.

Splitting of light sources. To observe interference with waves generated by atomic or molecular transitions it is necessary to use a single source and to split the light from the source into parts which can then be recombined. In this case the amplitude and phase changes occur simultaneously in each of the parts at the same time.

Young's two slit experiment. The simple technique for producing a splitting from a single source was done by T. Young in 1801 and was one of the first demonstrations of the wave nature of light. In this experiment a narrow slit is illuminated by a source and the light from this slit is caused to illuminate two adjacent slits. The light

from these two parallel slits can interfere and the interference can be seen by letting the light from the two slits fall on a white screen. The screen can be covered with a series of parallel fringes. The location of these fringes can be derived approximately as follows. In Fig. 1 S_1 and S_2 are the two slits separated by a distance d . Their plane is a distance l from the screen. Since the slit S_0 is equidistant from S_1 and S_2 the intensity and phase of the light at each slit will be the same. The light falling on P from slit S_1 can be represented by

$$A = A_0 \sin 2\pi f \left(t - \frac{x_1}{c} \right) \quad (10)$$

and from S_2

$$B = A_0 \sin 2\pi f \left(t - \frac{x_2}{c} \right) \quad (11)$$

where f is the frequency, t the time, c the velocity of light, x_1 and x_2 are the distances of P from S_1 and S_2 and A_0 is the amplitude. This amplitude is assumed to be the same for each wave since the slits are close together and x_1 and x_2 are then nearly the same. These equations are the same as Eqs. (1) and (2) with $\phi_1 = x_1/c$ and $\phi_2 = x_2/c$. Accordingly the square of the amplitude or the intensity at P can be written

$$I = 4A_0^2 \cos^2 \frac{2\pi f}{c} (x_1 - x_2) \quad (12)$$

In general l is very much larger than y so that Eq. (12) can be simplified to

$$I = 4A_0^2 \cos^2 \pi \left(\frac{y d}{\lambda l} \right) \quad (13)$$

This is a maximum whenever

$$y = n \lambda \frac{l}{d} \quad (14)$$

where n is an integer. It is a minimum for

$$y = (n + \frac{1}{2}) \lambda \frac{l}{d} \quad (15)$$

Accordingly the screen is covered with a series of light and dark bands which are called interference fringes. If the source behind slit S_1 is white light and thus has a wavelength varying perhaps from 4000 Å to 7000 Å the fringes are visible only where $x_1 - x_2$ is a few wavelengths. That is, here n is small. At large values of n the position of the n th fringe for red light will be very different from the position for blue light and the fringes will blend together and be washed out. With monochromatic light the fringe will be visible at all values of n which are determined by the diffraction pattern of the slit. For an explanation of this see DIFFRACTION.

The energy carried by a wave is measured by the intensity which is equal to the square of the amplitude. In the preceding example of the superposition of two waves the intensity at the individual

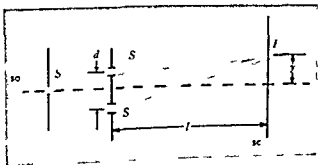


Fig. 1 Young's two-slit interference

rial This can be put in Eq (14) for the two slit interference pattern to give

$$y = n\lambda \frac{a + l}{2a(\mu - 1)\theta} \quad (23)$$

for the position of a bright fringe

A photograph of the experimental equipment for demonstrating interference with the Fresnel biprism is shown in Fig 4 A typical fringe pattern is shown in Fig 5 This pattern was obtained with a mercury arc source which has several strong spectrum lines accounting in part for the intensity variation in the pattern The pattern is also modified by diffraction at the apex of the prism

Billet split lens The source can also be split with the Billet split lens Here a simple lens is sawed into two parts which are slightly separated The experiment is sketched in Fig 6

Lloyd's mirror An important technique of splitting the source is with Lloyd's mirror This is

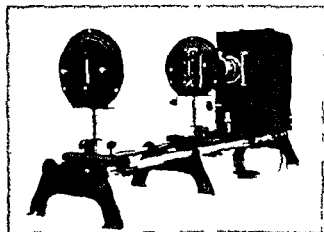


Fig 4 Equipment for demonstrating Fresnel biprism interference

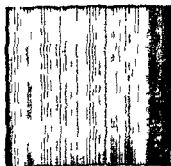


Fig 5 Interference fringes obtained with Fresnel biprism as a mercury arc light source

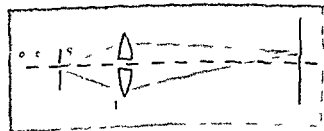


Fig 6 Billet split lens interference

sketched in Fig 7 in which the slit S_1 and its virtual image S_2 constitute the double source Part of the light falls directly on the screen and part is reflected at grazing incidence from a plane mirror Thus experiment differs from the previous Lloyd's experiments in that the two beams are no longer identical If the screen is moved to a point where it is nearly in contact with the mirror the fringe of zero path difference will lie on the intersection of the mirror plane with the screen This fringe turns out to be dark rather than light as in the case of the previous interference experiments The only explanation for this result is that light experiences a 180° phase shift on reflection from a material of higher refractive index than its surrounding medium The equation for maximum and minimum light intensity at the screen must thus be interchanged for Lloyd's mirror fringes

Amplitude splitting The interference experiments discussed have all been done by splitting the wavefront of the light coming from the source The energy from the source can also be split in amplitude With such amplitude splitting techniques, the light from the source falls on a surface which is partially reflecting Part of the light is transmitted part is reflected and after further manipulation these parts are recombined to give the interference In one type of experiment the light transmitted through the surface is reflected from a second surface back through the partially reflecting surface where it combines with the wave reflected from the first surface This is illustrated in Fig 8 Here the arrow represents the normal to the wavefront of the light passing through surface S_1 to surface S_2 The wave is incident at A and C The section at A is partially transmitted to B where it is again partially reflected to C The wave leaving C now consists of two parts one of which has traveled a longer distance than the other These two waves will interfere Let AD be the perpendicular from the ray at A to the ray going to C The path difference will be

$$\Delta = 2\mu(AB) - (CD) \quad (24)$$

where μ is the refractive index of the medium between the surfaces S_1 and S_2

$$(AB) = d/\cos r \quad (25)$$

$$(CD) = 2(AB) \sin r \cos i \quad (26)$$

From Snell's law

$$\sin i = \mu \sin r \quad (27)$$

$$\text{and thus} \quad \Delta = \frac{2\mu d}{\cos r} - \frac{2\mu d}{\cos r} \sin^2 r \quad (28)$$

$$= 2\mu d \cos r \quad (29)$$

The difference in terms of wavelength and the phase difference are respectively

$$\Delta = \frac{2\mu d \cos r}{\lambda} \quad (30)$$

$$\Delta\phi = \frac{4\pi\mu d \cos r}{\lambda} + \pi \quad (31)$$

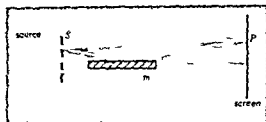


Fig 7 Lloyd mirror interference

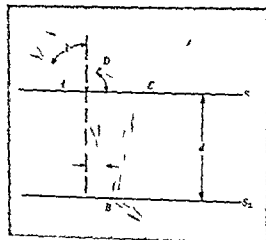


Fig 8 Interference by reflection from a flat surface

The phase difference ϕ is added because of the path difference Δx between the two rays. The path difference Δx is the distance between the two rays at the screen. If the path difference Δx is equal to an integral multiple of the wavelength λ , then the rays are in phase and a maximum is observed. If the path difference Δx is equal to an odd multiple of $\lambda/2$, then the rays are out of phase and a minimum is observed.

Eq (31) $\Delta x = m\lambda$ for maxima and $\Delta x = (m + 1/2)\lambda$ for minima.

where m is an integer.

Observation of interference fringes can be made by using a double-slit experiment. The two slits are separated by a distance d and the screen is at a distance D from the slits. The fringe width β is given by $\beta = \lambda D / d$.

light is reflected from the two surfaces and can be seen in Fig 8. One of the first experiments with interference of this type was performed by Sir Isaac Newton. A thin glass plate is placed against a glass plate and illuminated with monochromatic light. A series of circular interference fringes known as Newton's rings appear around the point of contact. From the spacing between the fringes it is possible to determine the radius of curvature of the lens.

The film interference fringes of the two-ray type are responsible for the colors which appear in a thin film floating on water. If the two surfaces are the oil-air interface and the oil-water interface. The film is of a thickness t and the light wavelength is λ . If the thickness t is such that a particular section destructively interferes, then green, light red and blue will still be reflected and the film will have a strong purple appearance. The same general phenomenon is responsible for the color of beetle wings.

Channelled spectrum. Amplitude plotting shows clearly on the condition that must be satisfied for interference to take place. The beam from the source must not only come from a point source but they must also originate from the same points at the same time. The light which is reflected from C in Fig 8 originates from the same source as the light which makes a double traverse between S_1 and S_2 . If the surfaces are too far apart the path difference is too great and destructive interference becomes so close together that they cannot be resolved. The same effect is observed by wavefront plotting. The light from different parts of a source could only be considered coherent if examined over a sufficiently short time interval. In the case of amplitude plotting the interference when surfaces are widely separated an only be seen if examined over a sufficiently small time interval. If the two surfaces are illuminated with white light and the effect is observed as a series of interference fringes, then the separation must be small enough for the path difference between the two waves to be less than the coherence length of the light. The interference becomes so small that the spectral resolution is lost. The effect is similar to the illumination of a narrow slit by a plane wave. The interference fringes can be seen by examining the reflected light with a spectroscope. The spectrum will be crossed with spectral lines. The width of the fringes will be small and the intensity of the fringes will be low. The resolution of the spectrum will be poor and the fringes will be broad.

$$\Delta = \frac{n_2 - n_1}{n_1 + n_2} \quad (3)$$

rial This can be put in Eq (14) for the two slit interference pattern to give

$$y = n\lambda \frac{a+l}{2a(\mu-1)\theta} \quad (23)$$

for the position of a bright fringe

A photograph of the experimental equipment for demonstrating interference with the Fresnel biprism is shown in Fig 4 A typical fringe pattern is shown in Fig 5 This pattern was obtained with a mercury arc source which has several strong spectrum lines accounting in part for the intensity variation in the pattern The pattern is also modified by diffraction at the apex of the prism

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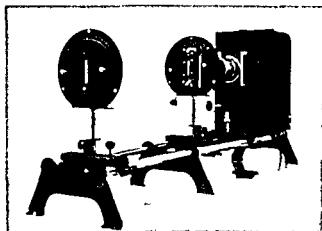


Fig 4 Equipment for demonstrating Fresnel biprism interference

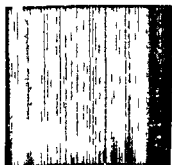


Fig 5 Interference fringes formed with Fresnel biprism and mercury arc light source

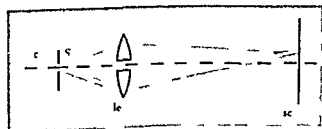


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$$\Delta = 2\mu(AB) - (CD) \quad (1)$$

where μ is the refractive index of the medium between the surfaces S_1 and S

$$(AB) = d/\cos r \quad (2)$$

$$(CD) = 2(AB) \sin r \cos i \quad (3)$$

From Snell's law

$$\sin i = \mu \sin r \quad (4)$$

$$\text{and thus } \Delta = \frac{2\mu d}{\cos r} - \frac{2\mu d}{\cos r} \sin^2 r \quad (5)$$

$$= 2\mu d \cos r \quad (6)$$

The difference in terms of wavelength and the phase difference are respectively

$$\Delta = \frac{2\mu d \cos r}{\lambda} \quad (7)$$

$$\Delta\phi = \frac{4\pi\mu d \cos r}{\lambda} + \pi \quad (8)$$

where A_0 is the amplitude of the incident wave and n_1 and n_2 are the refractive indices of the materials in the order in which they are encountered by the light. In the simple case of a dielectric sheet the intensity of the light reflected normally will be

$$C = A + B^2 + 2AB \cos \varphi \quad (32)$$

where B is the amplitude of the wave which has passed through the sheet and is reflected from the second surface and back through the sheet to join A . The value of B is given by

$$B = \frac{n_2 - n_1}{n_2 + n_1} \quad (34)$$

where the approximation is made that the intensity of the light is unchanged by passing through the first surface and where n_2 is the index of the material at the boundary of the far side of the sheet.

Nonreflecting film. An interesting application of Eq. (33) is the nonreflecting film. A single dielectric layer is evaporated onto a glass surface to reduce the reflectivity of the surface to the smallest possible value. From Eq. (33) it is clear that this takes place when $\cos \varphi = -1$. If the surface is used in an instrument with a broad spectral range such as a visual device the film thickness should be adjusted to put the interference minimum in the first order and in the middle of the desired spectral range. For the eye this wavelength is approximately in the yellow so that such films reflect in the red and blue and appear purple. The index of the film should be chosen to make $C^2 = 0$. At this point

$$(A - B)^2 = 0 \quad (35)$$

$$\frac{n_1 - n_2}{n_1 + n_2} = \frac{n_2 - n_3}{n_2 + n_3} \quad (36)$$

$$n_1 n_2 - n_1 n_3 - n_2 n_3 = n_1 n_2 - n_1 n_3 + n_2 - n_2 n_3 \quad (37)$$

This can be reduced to

$$n = \sqrt{n_1 n_3} \quad (38)$$

In the case of a glass surface in air $n_1 = 1$ and $n_3 \approx 1.5$. Magnesium fluoride is a substance which is frequently used as a nonreflective coating since it is hard and approximately satisfies the relationship of Eq. (38). The purpose of reducing the reflection from an optical element is to increase its transmission since the energy which is not reflected is transmitted. In the case of a single element this increase is not particularly important. Some optical instruments may have 15% air glass surface loss and the coating of these surfaces gives a tremendous increase in transmission.

Haidinger fringes. When the second surface in two-surface interference is partially reflecting interference can also be observed in the wave transmitted through both surfaces. The interference fringe will be complementary to the appearing in reflection. Their location will depend on the

parallelism of the surfaces. For plane parallel surfaces the fringes will appear at infinity and will be concentric rings. They were first observed by W. K. Haidinger and are called Haidinger fringes.

Multiple beam interference. If the surfaces S_1 and S_2 are strongly reflecting it is necessary to consider multiple reflections between them. For air glass surfaces this does not apply since the reflectivity is of the order of 4% and the twice-reflected beam is much reduced in intensity.

In Fig. 9 the situation in which the surfaces S_1 and S_2 have reflectivities r_1 and r_2 is shown. The space between the surfaces has an index n and thickness d . An incident light beam of amplitude A is partially reflected at the first surface. The transmitted component is reflected at S_2 and is reflected back to S_1 where a second splitting takes place. This is repeated. Each successive component of the waves leaving S_1 is retarded with respect to the next. The amount of each retardation is given by

$$\varphi = \frac{4\pi nd}{\lambda} \cos \theta \quad (39)$$

Equation (7) was derived for the superposition of two waves. It is possible to derive a similar expression for the superposition of many waves. From Fig. 9 the different waves at a plane some distance above S_1 can be represented by the following expressions

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Incident wave} &= A \sin \omega t \\ \text{First reflected wave} &= A r_1 \sin \omega t \\ \text{Second reflected wave} &= A(1 - r_1^2) r_2 \sin(\omega t + \varphi) \\ \text{Third reflected wave} &= -A(1 - r_1^2) r_1 r_2^2 \sin(\omega t + \varphi) \end{aligned} \quad (40)$$

By inspection of the e terms one can write down the complete series. As in Eq. (3) the infinite term can be broken down and coefficients collected. A simpler method is to multiply each term by $\sqrt{-1}$ and add a conjugate term with the same coefficient and argument. The individual term then is of the form

$$B e^{-i\omega t} e^{-im} \quad (41)$$

where m is an integer

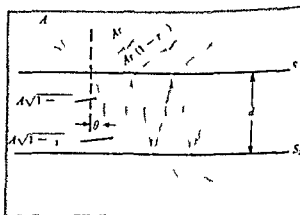


Fig. 9 Multiple reflection of a wave between two surfaces

the amplitude of current from the oscillator is measured as the distance between the crystal and the reflector is varied. At half wavelength intervals sharp dips occur in the received current indicating that a high mechanical impedance is impressed on the end of the vibrating crystal by the standing wave system between the crystal surface and the reflecting plate. By counting the number of half wavelengths n occurring in a given displacement l of the reflecting plate and knowing accurately the frequency of vibration f one determines the velocity of propagation v by the formula

$$v = \frac{2lf}{n}$$

The attenuation can be determined by the rate at which the maximum and minimum current values change with distance. Such instruments can measure velocities to within 1 part in 10 000 and at tenuation values within a few per cent. See ULTRASONICS [W P M]

Interferometry

The design and use of optical interferometer devices in which interference of light is used as a tool in metrology and spectroscopy. The uses include precise measurement of wavelength, the measurement of very small distances and thicknesses by using known wavelength, the detailed study of the hyperfine structure of spectrum lines, the precise determination of refractive indices and in astronomy the measurement of binary star separations and the diameters of stars. Optical interferometers are based on both two beam interference and multiple beam interference. They are also based on wavefront splitting and amplitude splitting.

Rayleigh interferometer. Perhaps the simplest type of interferometer is the Rayleigh interferometer which is essentially a modification of the instrument used in Young's double slit interference experiment (see INTERFERENCE OF WAVES). In Young's experiment the two slits are on the order of 1 mm apart. In the Rayleigh instrument (Fig. 1) the two slits S and S' are of the order of 1 cm apart and $1/4$ cm wide. They are illuminated with parallel light from a lens L_1 at whose focus is a single narrow slit S . A second lens L_2 spaced several centimeters from the first brings the two beams to a focus where interference fringes become visible. The instrument is used to measure the refractive indices of liquid and gases and in this fashion can serve also as a means of chemical analysis.



Fig. 1 Rayleigh interferometer

Cells (C_1 and C_2 in Fig. 1) are placed in front of each slit and matched so that when empty the central bright fringe in the interference pattern is not displaced. The material of interest is then placed in one cell and the comparison material in the other. If the refractive indices of the two materials are different the fringes will shift and this shift is a measure of the index difference.

To make the fringe shift easy to detect the cells are built to cover only half of the length of each slit. At the focus of the second lens there will accordingly appear two sets of fringes separated optically from each other. One set involves a part of the beams which does not pass through the cell. It remains motionless when a gas or liquid is put into either cell and acts thus as a series of reference marks for the displacement. In front of the cells are two plates of glass P_1 and P_2 . The cells add a retardation $(\mu - 1)t$ to each beam where μ is the index of refraction of the glass and t is its thickness. One of the plates can be tilted thus adding a phase shift to one of the beams. When the phase shift is equal and opposite to the phase difference in the beam caused by the refractive index difference between the contents of the two cells, the fringes will be displaced back to the zero position. They will then match the fringes produced by the beams which do not pass through the cell. In this way the instrument can be operated in a null fashion and becomes much more precise than if an attempt were made to measure the fringe shifts with a scale.

The Rayleigh interferometer is an extremely sensitive tool for the detection of impurities in gases and solutions. With 100 cm cell helium in air can be detected at a concentration of 60 parts in 10^8 . This represents an index difference of approximately 1×10^{-8} .

Michelson stellar interferometer. This device solves most dramatically the problem of measuring the diameter of stars which are as small as 0.01 sec of arc. This task is impossible with an optical telescope since the resolution obtained is even with the largest is not much better than 1 sec of arc.

The Michelson stellar interferometer is a simple adaptation of Young's two slit experiment. In it form two slit were placed over the aperture of a telescope. If the object being observed were a true point source the image would be covered with a set of interference fringes. A second point source separated by a small angle from the first would produce a second set of fringes. At certain values of this angle the bright fringes in one set will coincide with the dark fringes in the second set. The small angle α at which the coincidence occurs will be that angle subtended at the slit by the separation of the peak of the central bright fringe from the nearest dark fringe. This angle is given by the expression

$$\frac{\lambda}{2d} = \alpha \quad (1)$$

where d is the separation of the slits λ is the dominant wavelength of the two sources and α their angular separation. The measurement of the separation of the sources is performed by adjusting the separation d between the slits until the fringes are visible.

Consider a single source in the shape of a slit of width b with the slit subtended angle θ in the telescope which is larger than α the separation of the fringes will be reduced in proportion to the elements at one end of the slit there will be a constant angle α way which will can the fringes from the telescope. By induction it is found that for a separation d such that the slit subtends an angle

$$\alpha = \frac{\lambda}{d} \quad (2)$$

the fringes from a single slit will annihilate completely. For additional information on the Michelson interferometer see DIFFRACTION.

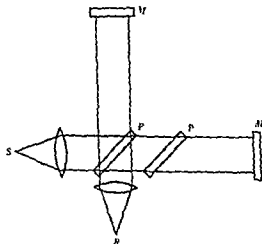


Fig. 2 Michelson interferometer. The half-silvered mirror P is at the center of the field of view. The eyepiece E is at the end of the field of view. The mirrors M and R are at the ends of the field of view. The source S is at the end of the field of view. The diagram is from H. G. W. (1932).

Michelson interferometer. The Michelson interferometer (Fig. 2) is based on amplitude splitting. Light from a narrow slit source S is directed at a 45° half-silvered mirror P . The light is split into two beams: one transmitted to mirror M and the other reflected to mirror R . Both beams are reflected back to P and recombine. The recombined beam passes through a lens and is observed at the eyepiece E . The path difference between the two beams is $2d \sin \theta$, where d is the distance to the mirrors and θ is the angle of observation. The condition for constructive interference is $2d \sin \theta = m\lambda$, where m is an integer. The condition for destructive interference is $2d \sin \theta = (m + \frac{1}{2})\lambda$. The Michelson interferometer is used to measure the wavelength of light, the speed of light, and the refractive index of a medium.

interference will still be two-beam interference. The intensity of the fringes can accordingly be made very great if the mirrors are slightly inclined about a vertical axis so that the fringes are formed in the field of view. The fringes can be formed in white light if the path difference in part of the field of view is made zero. Just as in other interference experiments, only a few fringes will appear in white light because the difference in path will be different for wavelengths of different colors. Accordingly, the fringes will appear colored due to the path difference and will disappear at larger path differences where the separation of the constructive regions of constructive interference is too close for the eye to see color. The fringes of zero path difference are black and are usually distinguished from the neighboring fringes. This makes use of the instrument relatively easy. The intensity is weak in a direct vision of the interferometer, but this is not a serious matter if a suitable optical spectrometer is used.

Details. As a means of measuring the path difference, an observer can be placed at the eyepiece. The fringes appear to move and may be counted. For light of the required degree of monochromaticity, the path difference between M and M_2 can be made equal to the wavelength of the fringes to come too weak to count.

The red lead of cadmium was used covered by a thin layer of aluminum to be narrow in the any other use available at the time. One of the early uses of Michelson's interferometer was in the measurement of the standard meter in terms of the wavelength of light. The mirror M was replaced by the prism P by a pair of mirrors M_1 and M_2 in Fig. 3. This arrangement is termed an interferometer. The two mirrors M_1 and M_2 are such that two etalons could be placed side by side in the field of view.

Several of the etalons were built. Each was two feet long and the next smaller. The largest was 10 cm and the smallest 0.631 cm. For the etalon, it was 1 up and down and the mirrors M_1 and M_2 were placed at the ends of the beam. At this point, the mirrors M_1 and M_2 were equidistant from the beam splitter. With red light, the mirrors M_1 and M_2 were

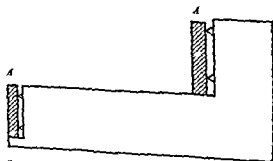


Fig. 3 A Michelson interferometer with two etalons. The etalons are placed side by side in the field of view. The diagram is from H. G. W. (1932).

then moved and fringes counted until the distance of mirror M_1 from the beam splitter was equal to the distance from the beam splitter of the mirror at the other end of the etalon. This operation gave the length of the smallest etalon in terms of the red cadmium line. The second etalon was then placed beside the first and their end mirrors aligned with the interferometer until both showed the black white light fringe. This signified that the two mirrors were exactly the same distance from the beam splitter. The movable mirror M_1 was then shifted until the white light fringe appeared at the other end of the smallest etalon. This etalon was then moved until the white light fringe appeared in the mirror at its other end. It had then been shifted a distance exactly equal to the separation between its two mirrors. Again mirror M_1 was moved until the black fringe appeared in the mirror at the other end of the etalon. This mirror was then separated from the scan mirror of the second largest etalon by a distance equal to twice the length of the smallest etalon. If the larger etalon were exactly equal to twice the smallest a white light fringe would appear in its mirror also. With monochromatic light it was easy to count the fringes which represented the differential between the two mirrors. A repetition of this procedure with larger etalons gave an exact measure of the length of the 10 cm etalon. The meter was then measured by repeating the mirror alignment procedure with 10 successive shifts of this longest etalon. By a recent repetition of these measurements the length of the meter was determined to be 1553 164 1 wavelengths of the cadmium red line in standard air.

Interference spectroscopy. The Michelson interferometer is also interesting as a spectroscopy. Consider first the case of two close spectrum lines as a light source for the instrument. As the mirror M_1 is shifted fringes from each line will cross the field. At certain path difference between M_1 and M the fringes will be out of phase and will be essentially disappear at other points they will be in phase and will be reinforced. By measuring the distance between successive maxima in fringe contrast it is possible to determine the wavelength difference between the lines.

This is a simple illustration of a very broad use for any two-beam interferometer. As the path length is changed the variation in intensity of the light coming from an interferometer gives information on the basis of which the spectrum of the input light can be derived. The equation for the intensity of the emergent energy can be written

$$I(t) = \int_0^\infty I(\lambda) \cos^2 \frac{\beta t}{\lambda} d\lambda \quad (3)$$

where β is a constant and $I(\lambda)$ is the intensity of the incident light at different wavelengths λ . This equation applies when the mirror M_1 is moved linearly with time from the position where the path difference with M_2 is zero to a position which depends on the longest wavelength in the spectrum to

be examined. From Eq. (3) it is possible mathematically to recover the spectrum $I(\lambda)$. In certain situations such as in the infrared beyond 15μ , this technique has several advantages over conventional spectroscopy. The detector looks at all wavelengths 50% of the time. The integration time is equal to one half the length of time taken by the whole scan. In a conventional infrared spectrometer the integration time is the time taken by the monochromator slit to traverse one resolvable unit of wavelength (see INFRARED SPECTROSCOPY). For a discussion of the use of the Michelson interferometer in the celebrated Michelson Morley experiment see LIGHT.

Fabry Perot interferometer. A simpler device than the Michelson interferometer is the Fabry Perot interferometer sketched in Fig. 4. The two glass plates are partially silvered on the inner surfaces and the incoming wave is multiply reflected between the two surfaces. Hence the device is called a multiple beam interferometer.

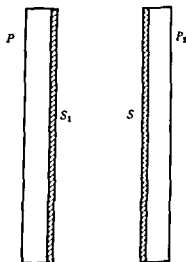


Fig. 4. Fabry Perot interferometer. P_1 and P_2 glass plates; S_1 and S_2 partially transmitting layers of silver.

The Fabry Perot interferometer is used in transmission. The expression for transmission T is

$$T = \frac{t^2}{(1-r)^2 + 4 \sin^2 [(2\pi nd/\lambda) \cos \theta + \gamma]} \quad (5)$$

where d is the separation of the surfaces, θ the angle of incidence, γ the phase shift for a reflection at the silver surface, t the transmission of the silver surface, r its reflectivity, and n the refractive index of the air between the plate. When a monochromatic light source is viewed through the interferometer it will appear as a series of rings. These occur at the angles which make

$$\cos \theta = \frac{(m\pi - \gamma)\lambda_0}{2\pi nd} \quad (6)$$

where λ is the wavelength of the light and m is an integer.

If a series of spectrum lines is transmitted through the instrument it appears as a series of

fringes are located at the virtual intersection of the two reflecting mirrors. In the Mach Zehnder device the mirrors can be adjusted so that the fringes are located at the plane of the model being studied. In this fashion they can be photographed simultaneously with the model so that their geometric position with respect to the model can be precisely determined. See SHOCK WAVE DISPLAY [B H B I]

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Intermediate frequency amplifier

A tuned amplifier employed in the amplification of the signals produced by the mixer in a radio receiver. Because the carrier frequency of the modulated signal from the mixer is essentially constant the resonant frequency of the amplifier is a fixed value.

The proper design of the intermediate frequency (i f) amplifier is essential for good selectivity and reproduction of the original transmitted signal. If the amplifier is tuned too sharply the high frequency components of the modulating signal will be lost. To avoid this stagger tuning of the individual stages may be used. In a stagger tuned amplifier the resonant frequency of each stage is slightly different from the carrier frequency with the result that the gain is essentially constant over the bandwidth of the modulated signal. The gain decreases rapidly at frequencies outside this band.

The standard i f frequency for broadcast radio receivers is 455 kc. Other frequencies are used depending upon the particular application such as television receivers or radar receivers. See AMPLIFIER [H F K]

Intermetallic compounds

If two metals are melted together in certain proportions the result is generally an alloy. It is also possible to form alloys by solid state reaction by application of the powder metallurgy technique. Depending on the component metal and their proportions the alloy may consist of a single phase or of several phases. Single phase alloys may be either of the solid solution type or intermetallic compound. According to the *Handbook of Metals* an intermetallic compound is defined as a compound

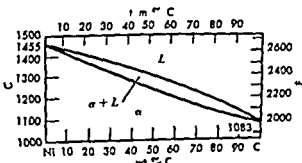


Fig 1 Copper-nickel phase diagram

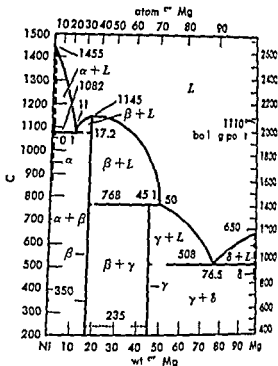


Fig 2 Magnesium-nickel phase diagram

of two or more metals with a characteristic crystal structure and may have a definite composition or range of compositions corresponding to a solid solution.

The difference between solid solution alloys and intermetallic compounds can be illustrated by comparison of characteristic phase diagrams. Figure 1 shows the phase diagram of two components (for example copper and nickel) which form a solid solution alloy—a typical phase diagram for two metals which form an intermetallic compound is shown in Fig 2. The intermetallic compound appears in the phase diagram as a vertical line and in this structure relationship may be treated in the same manner as a pure metal. The elements present in an intermetallic compound unite in definite atomic proportion similar to true chemical compound but unlike the chemical compound they do not follow simple valence rule because all the metal has equivalent valences.

In the solid solution copper-nickel system all the alloys of the various compositions are of face-centered cubic structure and the lattice parameter varies linearly with the atom concentration of the two components. From $a = 3.61 \text{ \AA}$ for copper to $a = 3.52 \text{ \AA}$ for nickel where a is a constant and x is the atom concentration.

The solubility of nickel with magnesium results in two intermetallic compounds as shown in Fig 2. The β phase is the precipitate formed in magnesium-rich Ni-Mg and the γ phase is precipitated in nickel-rich Ni-Mg. The two principal phases in this system are face-centered hexagonal structure (Mg) and face-centered cubic structure (Ni) where for example in the intermetallic compound (Ni₃Mg) the magnesium atoms are arranged in a triangular lattice for the intermetallic compound Ni₃Mg. The lattice distance for the intermetallic compound Ni₃Mg is 4.81 Å where a is the lattice distance for Mg.

forces (F London) At large distance of separation the potential energy associated with dispersion forces is proportional to $-R^{-6}$

A further development of the theory shows that the interaction involves not only the interplay between the rapidly fluctuating dipoles considered in the dispersion effect but also the production of higher order multipoles (H Margenau) The emergence of asymptotic interactions proportional to R^{-8} (dipole quadrupole interaction) R^{-10} (quadrupole quadrupole and dipole octupole interaction) and so forth

Only for symmetric molecules are the intermolecular forces independent of the orientation of the molecular axes with respect to the line joining the molecules In general they display features which are not indicated in the figure They are functions of angles and therefore noncentral forces Moreover when more than two molecules interact the total potential energy of the system is not necessarily the sum of the potential energies of all pairs Additivity in this sense holds only for the simpler kinds of dispersion forces Also Van der Waals forces between molecules carrying permanent multipoles and between atoms or molecules in excited states can be repulsive as well as attractive

The relative role played by the different constituents of the Van der Waals forces is generally difficult to assess There are only a few instances in which one type dominates all others In the case of H_2O at a distance of separation equal to the diameter of the molecule as given by kinetic theory the induction alignment and dispersion effects are all of comparable magnitude In the case of the dispersion forces the terms proportional to R^{-6} , R^{-8} and R^{-10} are of comparable importance

Shape of potential curve It is customary to derive information concerning the parameter of the curve in the figure from collective investigation of virial coefficient, vibrational crystal energy and so forth This has led to the use of empirical approximation to the true intermolecular force curve Most widely used is the Lennard-Jones potential which has the form

$$V = \frac{A}{R^{12}} - \frac{B}{R^6}$$

with proper choice of the constants A and B This equation has provided many useful results The intermolecular potential curve has also been successfully calculated from first principles of quantum mechanics but the complexity of the calculation has restricted the effort to the simplest molecule See CHEMICAL BINDING MOLECULAR STRUCTURE AND SPECTRA QUANTUM THEORY NON RELATIVISTIC SOLUTION STATISTICAL MECHANICS VALENCE. [H M]

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Internal combustion engine

A prime mover the fuel for which is burned within the engine as contrasted to a steam engine (see example in which fuel is burned in a separate furnace (see ENGINE) The most numerous of internal combustion engines are the gasoline piston engines used in passenger automobile outboard engines for motor boat small units for lawn mowers and other such equipment as well as diesel engines used in truck tractor earth moving and mill equipment This article describes the types of engines For other types of internal combustion engine see GAS TURBINE ROCKET ENGINE TURBINE PROPULSION The piston engine used in aircraft is fundamentally the same as that used in automobiles but is engineered for light weight and is usually air cooled See AIRCRAFT ENGINE RECIPROCATING

ENGINE TYPES

Characteristic features common to all commercial internal combustion engines include (1) the compression of air (2) the raising of air temperature by the combustion of fuel in the air at its elevated pressure (3) the extraction of work from the heated air by expansion to the initial pressure and (4) exhaust William Barnett first drew attention to the theoretical advantages of combustion under compression in 1838 In 1860 Beau de Rochas published a treatise that emphasized the value of combustion under pressure and a high ratio of expansion for fuel economy He proposed the four stroke engine cycle as a means of accomplishing the condition in a piston engine (Fig 1) The engine requires two revolutions of the crankshaft to complete one combustion cycle The first engine to use this cycle successfully was built in 1876 by N A Otto (see OTTO CYCLE)

Two years later Sir Dougald Clerk developed the two stroke engine cycle by which a similar combustion cycle required only one revolution of the crankshaft In this cycle exhaust ports in the cylinder were uncovered by the piston as it approached the end of its power stroke A check valve in the cylinder then pumped a charge of air to the working cylinder through a check valve when the piston pressure exceeded that in the working cylinder

In 1891 Joseph Day simplified the two stroke engine cycle by using the crankshaft to pump the required air The compression stroke of the working piston drew the fresh mixture charge through a check valve into the crankcase and the next power stroke of the piston compressed this charge The piston uncovered the exhaust port in the end of the power stroke and slightly later uncovers the intake port opposite it to admit the compressed charge from the crankcase A little steam usually produced from the piston heat to lift the large proportion of the cylinder charge leaving the burned gas down the oil sump and out the exhaust port with a little mixing as possible

forces (F Lond 7). At large distances of separation the potential energy is associated with dispersion forces proportional to $-R^{-6}$.

A further development of the theory shows that the interaction involves not only the interplay between the rapidly fluctuating dipole considered in the dispersion effect but also the production of higher-order multipoles (H Margenau). These give rise to a triplet interaction proportional to R^{-8} (dipole-quadrupole interaction), R^{-10} (quadrupole-quadrupole and dipole-octupole interaction) and so forth.

Only for symmetric molecules are the intermolecular forces independent of the orientation of the molecular axes with respect to the line joining the molecules. In general they display features which are not indicated in the figure. They are functions of angles and therefore noncentral forces. Moreover, when more than two molecules interact the total potential energy of the system is not necessarily the sum of the potential energies of all pairs. Additivity in this sense holds only for the simpler kind of dispersion forces. Also, Van der Waal forces between molecules carrying permanent multipoles and between atoms or molecules in excited states can be repulsive as well as attractive.

The relative role played by the different constituents of the Van der Waal forces is generally difficult to assess. There are only a few instances in which one type dominates all others. In the case of H_2O at a distance of separation equal to the diameter of the molecules as given by kinetic theory the induction alignment and dispersion effects are all of comparable magnitude. In the case of the dispersion forces, the terms proportional to R^{-6} , R^{-8} and R^{-10} are of comparable importance.

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with proper choice of the constants A and B . This equation has provided many useful results. The intermolecular potential curve has also been successfully calculated from first principles of quantum mechanics, but the complexity of the calculation has restricted these efforts to the simplest molecules. See CHEMICAL BINDING; MOLECULAR STRUCTURE AND SPECTRA; QUANTUM THEORY OF RELATIVISTIC SOLUTION; STATISTICAL MECHANICS; VALENCE.

[H 1]

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Internal combustion engine

A prime mover the fuel for which is burned in the engine as contrasted to a steam engine in which the fuel is burned in a separate furnace (see ENGINE). The most numerous of internal combustion engines are the gasoline piston engines used in passenger automobiles, on boats and for motor boats, small airplanes for lawnmowers and other such equipment, as well as diesel engines used in trucks, tractors, earthmovers and many other equipment. This article describes these types of engines. For other types of internal combustion engines, see (A) TURBINE; (B) ROCKET ENGINE; (C) DIESEL ENGINE; (D) PROPULSION. The piston engine used in aircraft is fundamentally the same as the used in automobiles but is engineered for light weight and is usually air-cooled. See AIRCRAFT ENGINE; PROPULSION.

ENGINE TYPES

Characteristic features common to all commercially successful internal combustion engines include (1) the compression of air, (2) the heating of air temperature by the combustion of fuel, (3) the air at its elevated pressure (4) the extraction of work from the heated air by expansion, (5) the reduction of pressure and (6) exhaust. William Rankine drew attention to the theoretical advantages of combustion under compression in 1859. In 1860, Beau de Rochas published a treatise that established the value of combustion under pressure and a high ratio of expansion for fuel economy. He proposed the four-stroke engine cycle as a means of accomplishing these conditions in a piston engine (Fig. 1). The engine requires two revolutions of the crankshaft to complete one combustion cycle. The first engine to use this cycle was built in 1876 by N. A. Otto (see OTTO CYCLE).

Two years later Sir Dugald Clerk developed the two-stroke engine cycle by which a similar combustion cycle required only one revolution of the crankshaft. In this cycle exhaust ports in the cylinder were uncovered by the piston as it approached the end of its power stroke. A second cylinder then provided a charge of air. The working cylinder through a check valve when the pressure exceeded that in the working cylinder.

In 1901 Joseph Daimler simplified the two-stroke engine cycle by using the crankcase to pump the required air. The compression stroke of the working piston draws the fresh combustible charge through a check valve into the crankcase and the next power stroke of the piston compresses this charge. The piston uncovers the exhaust port near the end of the power stroke and slightly later uncovers the intake port opposite to them to admit the compressed charge from the crankcase. A baffle is installed provided on the piston head to direct the charge one side of the cylinder. The exhaust port is closed by a valve which closes the other side and the exhaust port with a little mixing as possible.

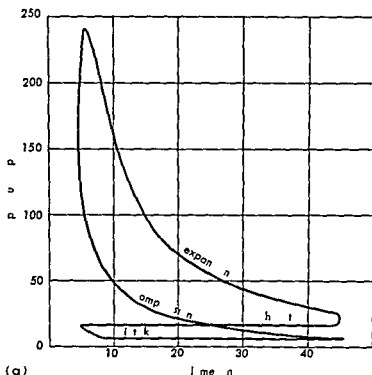
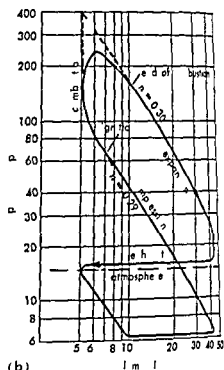


Fig 2 (a) Typical pressure-volume indicator card plotted on rectangular coordinates (b) The same data plotted on logarithmic coordinates



$$\eta = 1 - \frac{1}{r^{n-1}} \quad (1)$$

where the compression ratio r and expansion ratio r are the same ($r = r = r$). When theory assumes atmospheric air in the cylinder for extreme simplicity exponent n is 1.4. Efficiencies calculated on this basis are almost twice as high as measured efficiencies. Logarithmic diagrams from experimental data show that n is about 1.3. Even with this value efficiencies achieved in practice are less than given by Eq (1). This is not surprising considering the differences found in practice and assumed in theory such as instantaneous combustion, 100% volumetric efficiency and so on.

Attempts to adjust classical theory to practice by use of variable specific heats and consideration of dissociation of the burning gases at high temperatures have shown that this exponent should vary with the fuel-air mixture ratio and to some extent with the compression ratio. G. A. Goodenough and J. B. Baker have shown that for an 8:1 compression ratio it should vary from about 1.28 for a stoichiometric (chemically correct) mixture to about 1.31 for a lean mixture. Similar calculations by D. R. Pye showed that at a compression ratio of 5:1 n should be 1.258 for the stoichiometric mixture increasing with excess air (lean mixture) to about 1.3 for a 20% lean mixture and to 1.4 if extrapolated to 100% air. Actual practice gives thermal efficiencies still lower than these which might well be expected because of the assumed instantaneous changes in cyclic pressure (during combustion and exhaust) and the disregard of heat losses to the cylinder walls. These theoretical rela-

tions between compression ratio and thermal efficiency as well as some experimental results are shown in Fig 3. The data published by C. F. Keatinger and D. F. Caris are about 85% and 82% respectively of the theoretical for the corresponding fuel-air mixtures. Figure 3b gives the theoretical percentage gain in indicated thermal efficiency or power from raising the compression of an engine calculated from Eq (1) with $n = 1.3$. These gains are less than half as great as those obtained by industry as indicated from the maximum brake mean effective pressure (bmep) values for production cars shown in Fig 4.

Experimental data indicate that a change in compression ratio does not appreciably change the mechanical efficiency nor the volumetric efficiency of an engine. Therefore any increase in thermal efficiency resulting from an increase in compression ratio will be reflected by a corresponding increase in torque or bmep; this is frequently of more practical importance to the engine designer than the actual efficiency increase which becomes an added bonus.

Compression ratio and octane rating. For years compression ratios of automobile engines have been as high as designers considered possible without danger of too much customer annoyance from detonation or knock with the gasoline on the market at the time (Fig 4). Engine designers continue to raise the compression ratios of their engines as rapidly as suitable gasoline comes on the market.

Little theoretical study has been given to the effect of engine load on indicated thermal efficiency. Experimental evidence reveals that it varies little

High intake at time of combustion and cylinder material ally add combustion in a diesel engine, especially if fuel has a low volatility and high viscosity. Some engines have not performed properly on high fuel until provided with a supercharger. The added compression of the supercharger raises the temperature and what is more important, the density of the combustion air. For an Otto engine, an increase in the temperature of the mixture in the cylinder reduces the allowable compression ratio. Diesel engines develop a high and rated thermal efficiency reduced load because of the fuel ratio and the coefficient. Such mixture ratio may be lean than will give an Otto engine. Furthermore the reduction of load in an Otto engine requires the total gas which develops in the intake system.

TRENDS IN AUTOMOBILE ENGINES

Each year the power developed per cylinder per kilogram of automobile gas has increased. The compression ratio and reduced ignition amount for the new cylinder design in American made engines decreased rapidly at first as the pressure was reduced and then stabilized at about 34:1 (Fig 7). In 1959 the average American automobile engine has 39 in. Many European automobiles have cylinder bores of 2 1/4 in. bore diameter as 2 1/4 in.

Bore stroke ratio. Experimental engines differ slightly in bore stroke ratio, showing that this has appreciable effect on efficiency and friction at corresponding speeds. Paternal design has resulted from a history of (1) the greater rigidity of crankshaft in the bore to check with crankshaft in the overlapping in a long and (2) the narrower light cylinder diameter which is possible. The thickness of the higher crankshaft rotation for a equal tip speed necessitates great deflection and deformation. The principle of the smaller depth of the compression stroke for a longer stroke and the proportion of heat transfer during combustion. Nevertheless, bore-to-stroke ratio has been increasing to more

than 25 years and in 1959 reached 1.08 for the average automobile in the United States.

Compression ratio. The considerable increase in engine power has been caused by steadily improved ignition compression ratio and thus mean average indicated (Fig 8).

In 1959 the mean ratio of 10:1 or higher were provided on more than 36% of all automobile manufacturers. Such ratios approach practical limits imposed by phenomena other than detonation such as preignition, rumble, and other evidence of undesirable combustion.

The modern trend toward high compression ratio with the small compression volume has dictated the almost universal use of overhead valves in all new American engines. High compression ratios also tend to restrict cylinder diameter because the longer flame travel increases the tendency to knock (Fig 9).

Improved breathing and exhaust. Added power output has been brought about by reducing the pressure drop in the intake system at high speed and by reducing the back pressure of the exhaust system (Fig 10). These results were accomplished by larger valves and also port larger valves in the cylinder head by more streamlined manifolds. Large valves as we have achieved by higher lift of the valves and by larger valves. Large venturi area in the carburetor were achieved by use of one or two-stage carburetors in the engine. The intake velocity was developed to meet the fuel requirements at low power, the second venturi was opened for high power. Better streamlining of the manifold passages between carburetor and valves, especially at the cylinder ports, and the use of dual exhausts and mufflers with reduced back pressure have improved engine breathing and exhaust.

Cylinder number and arrangement. Engine power may be raised by increasing the number of cylinders as well as the power per cylinder. The minimum number of cylinders has generally been four for a cylinder automobile engine because this is the smallest number of pistons, bearings, and balance for the reciprocating pistons. Many early cars had four-cylinder engines. After 1912 six-cylinder engines became popular. They have superior balance for reciprocating pistons and more even torque impulses. By 1940 the eight-cylinder engine had become the most popular type until about equalled the six-cylinder. After 1954 the V-8 dominated the field for American automobiles. These are equally important reasons for this besides the increased power. For example, the V-8 offers appreciably more rigid construction with less deflection at high speeds. Piston design in the combustion of fuel to all cylinders from centrally located wrist draft combustion chamber has high low engine thrust, with the hood of the cylinder heads. The solution of cylinder arrangement included for a short period the V-12 and even a V-16 cylinder design but experience has shown that the cylinder with too much pressure

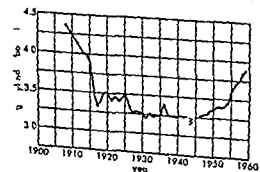


Fig 7 Trend of bore-to-stroke ratio in automobile engines

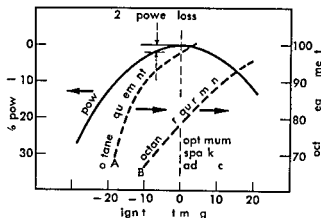


Fig 5 Effects of advancing or retarding ignition timing from optimum on engine power and the resulting octane requirement of the fuel in an experimental engine with a combustion chamber having typical turbulence (A) and a highly turbulent design (B) with the same compression ratio. Retarding the spark 7° for a 2% power loss reduced the octane requirement from 98 to 93 for design A.

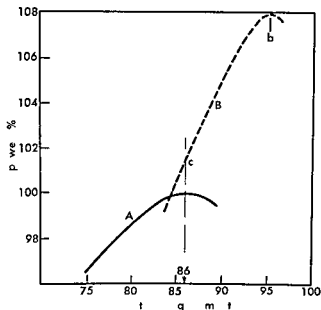


Fig 6 Effect of a given compression ratio of a mixture on the power output and octane requirement at wide throttle. While a 86:1 fuel was required for optimum spark advance (maximum power) with the original compression ratio, the same result would be known for a higher compression ratio by suitably retarding the ignition timing.

and the sensitivity of the octane value of the particular fuel to temperature that it is not generally practical to make much general use of this method. Nevertheless it has been the practice with piston type aircraft engines to use fuel air mixture ratios of 0.11 or even higher during take off instead of about 0.08 which normally develops maximum mep in the absence of knock.

Compression ignition engines About 20 years after N. A. Otto first ran his engine, Dr. Rudolf Diesel successfully demonstrated an entirely different

method of igniting fuel. Air is compressed to a pressure high enough for the adiabatic temperature to reach or exceed the ignition temperature of the fuel. Because this temperature is in the order of 1000 F, compression ratios of 12:1 to 20:1 are used commercially with compression pressures generally over 600 psi. This engine cycle requires the fuel to be injected after compression at a time and rate suitable to control the rate of combustion.

Conditions for high efficiency The classical presentation of the diesel engine cycle assumes combustion at constant pressure. Like the Otto cycle, thermal efficiency increases with compression ratio, but in addition it varies with the amount of heat added (at the constant pressure) up to the cutoff point where the pressure begins to drop from adiabatic expansion. See DIESEL CYCLE, DIESEL ENGINE.

Practical attainments Diesel engines were highly developed in Germany prior to World War I and made an impressive performance in submarines. Large experimental single cylinder engines were built in several European countries with cylinder diameters up to 1 meter. As an example, the two stroke Sulzer S100 single acting engine with a bore of 1 meter and a stroke of 1.1 meters developed 2050 gross horsepower at 150 rpm. Multiple cylinder engines developing 15,000 horsepower are in marine service. Small diesel engines are in wide use also.

Fuel injection In early diesel engines air in the cylinder of the fuel was used to develop extremely fine atomization and good distribution of the spray. But the need for injection air at pressures in the order of 1500 psi required expensive and bulky multistage air compressors and intercoolers.

A simpler fuel injection method was introduced by James McKechnie in 1910. He atomized the fuel as it entered the cylinder by use of high oil pressure and suitable spray nozzles. After considerable development it became possible to atomize the fuel sufficiently to minimize the smoky exhaust which had been characteristic of the early solid injection engines. By 1930 solid or airless injection had become the generally accepted method of injecting fuel in diesel engines. See FUEL INJECTION.

Contrast between diesel and Otto engines There are many characteristics of the diesel engine which are in direct contrast to those of the Otto engine. The higher the compression ratio of a diesel engine, the less the difficulties with ignition time lag. Too great an ignition lag results in a sudden and undesired pressure rise which causes an audible knock. In contrast to an Otto engine, knock in a diesel engine can be reduced by use of a fuel of higher cetane number, which is equivalent to a lower octane number. See CETANE NUMBER, COMBUSTION WAVE MEASUREMENT, OCTANE NUMBER.

The larger the cylinder diameter of a diesel engine, the simpler the development of good combustion. In contrast, the smaller the cylinder diameter of the Otto engine, the less the limitation from detonation of the fuel.

Increased difficulty in producing good manifold distribution of fuel especially when starting cold and too much difficulty in keeping all spark plugs firing. See AUTOMOBILE.

Engine balance Rotating masses such as a crank pin and the lower half of a connecting rod may be centrifugally balanced by weight attached to the crank pin flange. The vibration which would result from the reciprocating force of the piston and the crank offset mass is usually minimized or eliminated by the arrangement of cylinders in a multicylinder engine so that the reciprocating forces in one cylinder are counterbalanced by those in another. When the forces are in different planes a corresponding pair of cylinders is required to counteract the twisting rocking up).

If p t n m t n w r e t r u l y h a r m o n i w h i c h
w u l d r e q u a c n e c t n g r d o f i n f i n i t e l e n g t h
t h e r e p o s i t i o n g r t u f c a t e a h e d o f t h e
s t r o k e w u l d b e

$$F = 0.000456 \text{ FN} \quad (2)$$

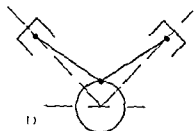
he W is the total weight of the r e p o s at ng
p t in e cylnd r N ; the pm a d S
tr ke i n h s Both F and W a e in pou d B t
t h p t m t n t n t m p l h a m o n c b c
t h e n t g r d i n t n f n i t e n l g h and th
p t n t a l s m e t h n h a l f t t r k w t n the
a n k y t r n 90 f m f i r i n g d a d e n t T h s
d i t t n o f t h t r u h a r m n m o t o n d u t the
o e R d n g u i t y a o f t h c o n n e c t n g o d

$$= 1 - \frac{3}{2} \quad (3)$$

h r i the c a k rad the t o k e a d l the
e c t n g o d l e o t h l l i n h

Rec po ing et h f a t n l with the
 ynd is d mav b ad red a cmb a
 n f a p r m a y f r c e — t h t e h r m o n c f e
 f m E t (2) — o e i l t n t t h a m e f r e q u c y
 a t h k h f p m a d n d r y f o r e c l
 f t i n g a t t w t h f q n s h i n g a a l e o f f a
 w h h d d e t t e p m a y t f i g d d e t r
 d b a i d f m t t n r d a d c e t r l e
 f t t h e a f i t b t p d l y d m i t m
 s e r r o f e v e h a r m n c s a t 4 6 8 t h m
 n k h f p e d b i b t h e d f h r m o n i
 t h y r s o m a l l t h t e y m g e a l l y b n e g
 l e c t e d T h y f r e c t i n g d w t h t h e e r g e
 g l a y f t h e 1959 t m b l e g w h e
 a = 0.69 t h e n e x t a f c e u s e d b y p t n t
 f i n g d d e t i b o t l 7 t i m e s t h e p u b a r
 m n f a n d t i d d n t r t 073
 t m l g

Wh tw pi to s action ne c k p n with the
ld 90 v r g me t in F g ll
th rev lta t p m ry f e o x d l d f con
te r m g n t d a d tates a u d th c ank h ft
with th k p Th f t m y be ompen
ted f by a d d t n t th weight q i d i
co t b f th ce trifu gal fo f th evol
i g k p d t a soc ted m es Th ult



Fg 11 A g m ts f two cyl d rs () 90 V
f m t with c t g d p t g n th m
kpn (b) opp ed cyl d with net g od
p t g th me c kpn () pp ed cyl
d rs with p t n p at g n a k p 180 ap rs
(d) d uble-opp ed p t th sam cyl d but
pe t g te pa t k h ft

a t f the co dary f r f the tw p ton
141 times l rg s for n cylr der a d ecip o-
cat a ho zont l plane th ough the r nk haft
at tw e cr nkshaft spe d

I n t e r k n a h t s p e d
 o n t u n g r d o p e t e t h a m r a n k p n a u n
 Fig 115 the p r m a y f r e a e added and a e
 t w e a g r e a t a s f o r o p t i n b u t t h e n d r y
 f o c s c n l l t h p t n s p e t e o n t w c r a n k
 p i 180 a p a r t a n F i g 11 a l l r e c p r o a n g
 f o c r e b a l n e d H w e a t h y w i l l b e n
 d H r e p i n o k i g c u p l e w i l d e l o p n
 l e s c m p e s a t e d b y a n o p p s g c o u p l e f o m a n
 o t h r p a o f c y l i n d e r d a b l e p p o d p i t o
 p i p r i n g a n g l e y l i n d n t w c r a n k
 h a f t s i n F i l l d (w i t h a r y s h a f t t m a i
 t i y n c h m) r e i p f e t b a l a n e f o r p r i
 m a r y a n d s e c o n d r y p r o c a t f o r e s a s w i l l
 a f o r t t i g m a e s a d t o q u e a t i o s

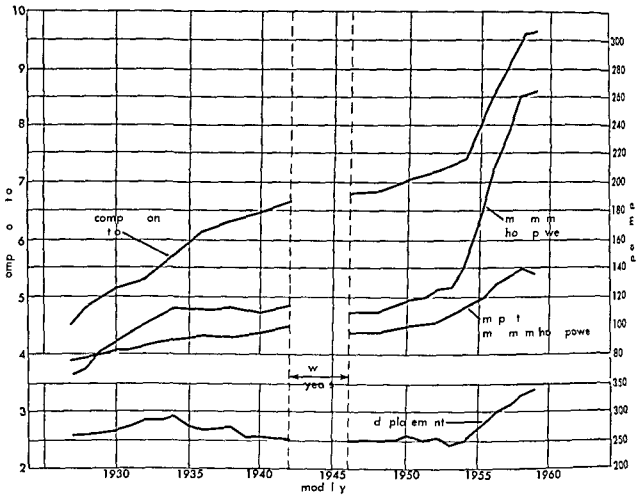


Fig 8 Trend in compression ratio, mean effective pressure and power of average United States automobiles

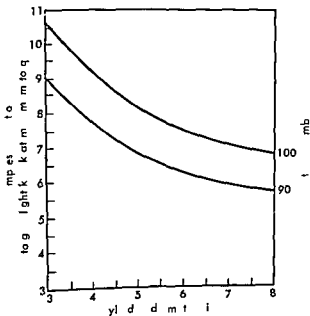


Fig 9 Relation between cylinder diameter and limiting compression ratio for engines of simple design with 90- and 100-octane gasolines

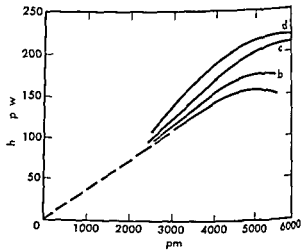
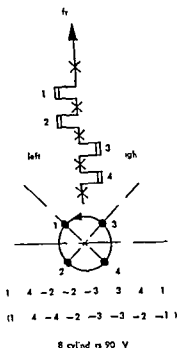
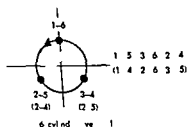
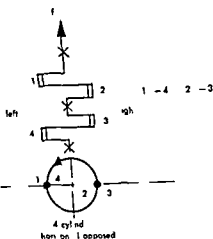
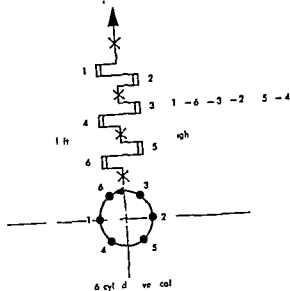
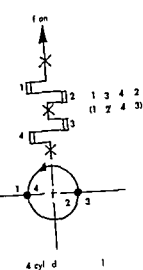


Fig 10 Calculated the peak power for a cylinder (210 in. displacement) by successive reduction in the intake air flow through it. Curve a power developed by a single cylinder with two 171 cc at 1000 rpm. Curve b, c, and d have the same cylinder but with two 171 cc at 1000 rpm. Curve d has the same cylinder but with two 171 cc at 1000 rpm. Curve d has the same cylinder but with two 171 cc at 1000 rpm.



12 Typ l cyl d rr g m ts d fi g d rs

t pe lth th d d t g how f
g m e t m t e h r m l m f l d
n p e t n l e s t h e w t p p l y f m t h y l
l h d h r t e d t h g h t h m f l d
k t b y t b l w a t t h r m t t d g
m p
O f t h d t a g e f t h V 8 g e i t h e
l l t t k m f l d d g p e r m i t t e d b y t h
e n t l y l o c t d i t w t h b t m l l d f f
e s t h l g t h f t h p a g b e t w t h
b t n d h y l d e r d q l m b e
f g h t g l b e d h i t y p l i t k e

m f l d i g d l c a r b r e t r (Fig 14) With
the u a l f i r g o d e r h w n i n F i g 12, the f i r i n g
i n t e r v a l f o r e a c h f t h e l o w e r b a n c h e (s h w n
d t t d) e v l y p e d 360 k h f t d e g r e e s
p a r t b t f o h f t h e p p b h e t w o c y l
d f i 180 d t h e n 540 p r t

I c a g B e g l e h a d b l e l t e t
h t f p o i z a t t l w e t h e a t m p e a t u e
a i t e v a p o r a t s. T h s t r u e v e n a t t h e l o w t m
p r t e s w h e e l y m a l l p a r t f i t p o r t e d
I t t h e r f p b l f m t e w h h m a y b e
c r r d b y t h a t o f e z u n d e r t c n d i

In the conventional four cylinder in line engines with crankpins in the same plane the primary reciprocating forces of the two inner pistons (2 and 3) cancel those of the two outer pistons (1 and 4) but the secondary forces from all pistons are added. They are thus equivalent to the force resulting from a weight about 4½ times the weight of one piston and its share of the connecting rod oscillating parallel to the piston movement having the same stroke but moving at twice the frequency. A large α for this type of engine is disadvantageous. Where the four cylinders are arranged alternately on each side of a similar crankshaft and in the same plane both primary and secondary forces are in balance. Six cylinders in line also balance both primary and secondary forces.

Early eight cylinder 90° engines with four crankpins in the same plane like those of the early four cylinder engine had unbalanced horizontal secondary forces acting through the crankshafts which were four times as large as those from one pair of cylinders.

In 1927 Cadillac introduced a crank arrangement for its V-8 engine with the crankpins in two planes 90° apart. Staggering the 1 and 2 crankpins 90° from each other equalizes secondary forces but the forces are in different plane. The couple thus introduced is cancelled by an opposite couple from the pistons operating on crankpins 3 and 4. This arrangement of crankpins is now universally used on V-8 engines.

Torsion dampers In addition to vibrational forces from rotating and reciprocating masses vibration may develop in an engine from torsional resonance of the crankshaft at various critical speeds. The longer the shaft for given bearing diameter the lower the speeds at which the vibration may develop. Such vibrations are dampened on most six and eight-cylinder engines by a vibration damper which is similar to a mall flywheel on the crankshaft at the end opposite to the main flywheel but coupled to the shaft only through rubber or arranged as to reduce the torsional resonances. Such vibration dampers are usually combined with the pulley driving the cooling fan and generator. See MECHANICAL VIBRATION.

Even though the majority of American automobile engines are now dynamically balanced it has been general practice for several years to mount them in the chassis frame on rubber blocks. This reduces the transmission of the small amplitude high frequency vibrations in torque reaction as well as a small unbalance of reciprocating parts in individual cylinders so that a low noise level is developed in the car from the operation of the engine.

Firing order Cylinder arrangements are generally selected for even firing intervals and torque impulse as well as for balance. As a result the cylinder arrangements and firing order shown in Fig. 12 may be found in automobile engines. It is generally customary to identify cylinder banks as left or right as seen from the driver's seat and to num-

ber the crankpins from front to rear. Manufacturers do not agree on methods of numbering cylinders of V type engines. However the arrangements and firing orders shown are in general in line with the addition in parentheses of alternate arrangements only occasionally used.

Intake manifolds Intake manifolds for multi-cylinder engines should meet several requirements for the satisfactory performance of spark plug engines. They should (1) distribute fuel equally to all cylinders at temperatures where unvaporized fuel is present, as when starting a cold engine or during the warm up period; (2) supply sufficient heat to vaporize the liquid fuel from the carburetor as soon after starting as possible; (3) distribute the vaporized fuel air mixture evenly to all cylinders during normal operation and at low speeds; (4) offer minimum restriction to the mixture flow at high power; and (5) provide equal ram or dynamic boost to volumetric efficiency of all cylinders at some desired part of the engine speed range.

Experience shows that the passages between the carburetor and each cylinder should be nearly equal in length with the same number of right angle bends and that no cylinder should be cramped with another at the end of a leg of the manifold, particularly if the firing intervals for these cylinders are uneven. Passage length affects the amount of boost in volumetric efficiency or mep and the speed at which it peaks (Fig. 13).

For the warming up period with liquid fuel present rectangular sections are desirable to impede spiraling of liquid fuel along the wall and right angle bends should be sharp at least at their inner corner so as to throw the liquid flowing along the inner wall back into the air stream.

Manifold heat Intake manifold of most American automobile engines are heated to the temperature required to vaporize the fuel from the carburetor (120–140°F) by exhaust gas passing through suitable passages in the manifold casting particularly at the first T beyond the carburetor where the liquid fuel impinges before turning to side branches. To speed the warm up process thermally operated valves are generally placed in the engine exhaust system so as to force most of the exhaust gases through the intake manifold heater passage when the engine is cold. After the intake manifold has reached the desired temperature such valves are intended to open and permit only the necessary small portion of exhaust gases to continue passing through the heater. This is an important feature for too much heat causes a loss of engine power and aggravates the tendency for the engine to ward knock andapor lock.

On some engines the intake manifold are heated by water jacket taking hot water from the engine cooling system. This gives uniform heating over a wide range of operating conditions without danger of overheating the mixture resulting from exhaust gas heat if the thermally operated exhaust valve should

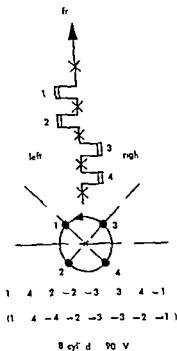
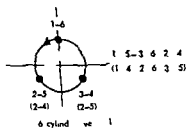
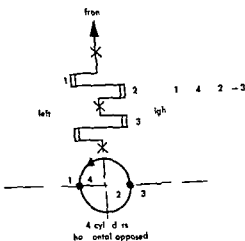
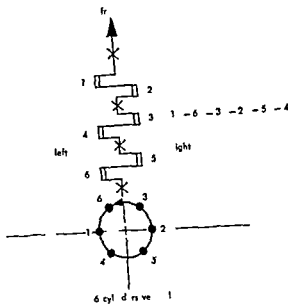
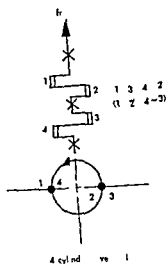


Fig 12 Typ 1 cyl d rra g m ts d fi g d

f l t j e l t h a t h d s d a n t g e h w e v r o f
 q g m t m t r e h n o m a l m f o l d
 t m p e t r l t h w a t p p l y f m t h c y l
 d h d h o r t u t e d t h g h t h m f l d
 j k t b y t b l w s t h e m s t t d r n g
 w e m n

O f t h d t g f t h e V-8 e g t h
 i l n t t k m f l d d g n p r m t t e d b y t h
 e n t r l l y l o c t e d b r t w t h b t m a l l d f f
 e s t h l n g t h s f t h p g b e t w e e t h e
 a b t d d h y l d d a n q u l m b e
 t g h t g l b e d t h a t y p c l n t a k e

manifold using dual abutment (Fig 14). With the usual design shown Fig 12 the fitting trials for each of the low braises (highly polished) were 360 crankshaft degrees apart but for the high braises (highly polished) were 180 crankshaft degrees apart.

I c g Be au e g l ha c n a d b l l t e r
 h t o f p o t t l w e r s t h e a t m p t
 i t e p t T h i t r u e n a t t h l w i r e
 p t w h e n l y m a l l p a r t f t p z d
 I t i s t h e f e p b l f m i t w h c m y h e
 c e d b y t h a r t f t e z u d e r t p c o n d

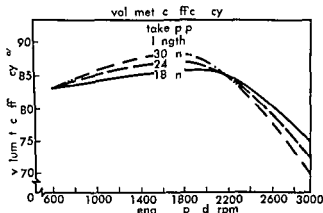


Fig 13 Effect of intake pipe length on the volumetric efficiency of a single cylinder engine at different engine speeds

tions Ice is most likely to form when the atmosphere is almost saturated with moisture at temperatures slightly above freezing and up to about 40 F. When ice forms around or near the throttle it can seriously interfere with the operation of an engine. For this reason small passages have been provided on some engines for jacket water or exhaust gas from the heating supply for the intake manifold to warm at least the flange of the carburetor. Here again too much heat would produce vapor lock and this would interfere with normal fuel metering.

Typical American automobile engine The typical automobile engine as manufactured in the United States during 1959 was an eight cylinder 90° V with overhead valves such as shown in Fig 15. The cylinder blocks and upper crankcase are cast in one piece. The structure has sufficient rigidity to permit high speeds (4400-5000 rpm at maximum power) without serious deflections. Crankshaft stiffness is aided by a main bearing between each pair of opposing cylinders which have their connecting rods staggered side by side on the same crankpin.

The V arrangement makes possible efficient intake manifold design with symmetrical and almost equal passages to each cylinder from a centrally located down draft carburetor. It is short and low important characteristics for the styling of the

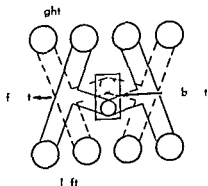


Fig 14 Typical intake manifold with down draft carburetor on a V8 engine

cars in which it is used. It is water cooled under pressure limited to 7-14 psi by a spring loaded radiator cap and it has water jackets completely surrounding each cylinder for the full length of the cylinder barrels. Valves are operated by a single camshaft in the V which is driven by a silent chain. Over 70% of the engines quiet the valve action by hydraulic lifters (see HYDRAULIC VALVE LIFTER). Almost as many engine designs provide means of rotating at least the exhaust valves during engine operation and some rotate the intake valves also. This distributes wear and improves valve life. It is standard practice to provide two narrow compression rings and one oil scraper ring on each piston above the wrist pin. About half the designs lock the wrist pin in the connecting rod; the remainder leave the pin free to rotate. All compression rings are of cast iron about 0.078 in. wide and have wear resisting coatings. Top rings are generally chrome

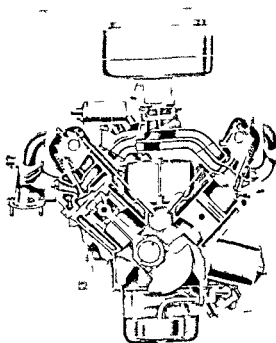


Fig 15 Typical modern V8 automobile engine with overhead valves (Ford Motor Co.)

plated although one manufacturer uses tin plating. Most lower compression rings are tin plated; some have coatings of phosphate or oxide. Oil scraper rings are about 3/16 in. wide and made of cast iron or chrome plated steel. The average dimensions of various engine parts are given in the table.

FUEL CONSUMPTION AND SUPERCHARGING

Fuel consumption at loads throughout the operating range of an engine provide insight into such characteristics as friction loss within the engine. Volumetric efficiency of an engine can be increased by use of supercharging.

Part load fuel economy When the fuel consumption of a spark ignition engine at a given fuel air ratio is plotted against brake horsepower

ag engl dmen lon (l lches)
1959 automobils

| | |
|------------------------------------|------|
| Cyl d bore | 40 |
| Strok | 346 |
| Co ectu g rod l gth | 644 |
| R t f cr a k d t l gth | 0 69 |
| Co ectu g rod b g e d be n g d m t | 8 |
| Co ectu g rod b g e d be n g d m t | 084 |
| Co ectu g rod b g e d be n g d m t | 19 |
| Co ectu g rod b g e d be n g d m t | 099 |
| W r i p d m t | 63 |
| M l b e g d m t | 089 |
| M l b e n g l gth | 34 |
| M l b e n g | 190 |
| l t a k l h d d m t | 156 |
| Ex h u s t l h d d m t | |

tr ight lne m y ge rally be dr wn th ough the
te p nts at g n peed as h w n n F₁₆
pr ded that the test r run w th opt m m pa k
d a ce s h l e r mila to the Will nslines
l g u d f r the ste m on umpt o f t a m e n
g nes

For p act cal p p s th lns at r o s
peed m y be c s d r d p r l l r a w d
ra g f p e d W h n ext p l a t d to z r fuel
c n m p t the n g a t p o w r a d g s m a y be
c o d e d a t h f r t o p w e a b s o b d t the
r e p n d g p e e d s O c h o d a t e l i e
r a d t g f m t h i g p e e t c n t n r t o
I f l e n u m e t p w e r d e v e l o p e d n d t h r f r
c t a n t p e c i f i c f u l e n u m p t i n (f) S e v e a l
c h l e a e i d c t d a l i n F i g 16 f m w h c h
t h f a t r l a d s m y b d d r c t l y w h e
t h y c t r e p r f m a n c e l n e s a t t h e a r o u s
p e d

S m i l r p l t s o f e v e n g r a t e r u t l y m a y b
d d e d c t e d h o e p o w e b a s s h
b e e d e F i g 17 f r t h e m e d a t F m a y
g e s s g l p e f o m a l n m y b e d w n
t h g h a l l t e p t s t g e n f e l a r t i r
a c i d r a b l a g e f p e e d W h e n t p l t d
t h e p f r m e l p e s t h g h t h r i g t t
d o e f t h e g i h w F i g 17 t h i n d i c a t e d
f a d t h e r m a l e f f i c y o f t h e g r e m a c n

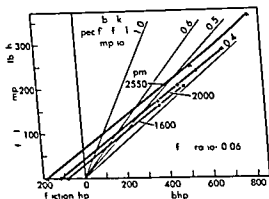


Fig 16 F l m p i f g l t p r l o a d
p l d t y p i c l W i l l i g t b k h r e s
p o w D a w t k w i t h p t m m p k d
d w h f l a t d i t d t h t p t

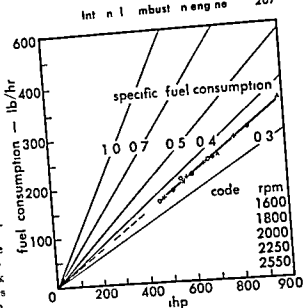


Fig 17 The d t f f g 16 p l t d o g i t i d t d
h p w b y w h h t h d f c f p e d o
t l d

st a t o e r t h e l d r a n g e e d F r e q u e n t l y a
p e f o r m n e l n e f o r n e n g e p a e s a l t i t l e t o t h e
l i f t o f t h r i g n b e c a o f n d i t o n c a u i n g a
d c e a i n t h r m a l e f f i c y a s t h e l o a d i e
d c e d u c h s s u f f i c i e t t u r b u l e n c r t o l o w a
m a n f o l d l i t y F o r a m o e c o m p l e t e p i c t u r e o f
t h e f e l c n s u m p t i o p e r f o m a c e o f a n e g e
s m i l r p l o t m y b e m a d e n a n m e p b i s W h e
t h d e a n d b t h f u e l c n s u m p t i n a d h o e
p o w e a d i d e d b y t h e g n e f a c t o r w h c n
e r t h s e p w e t o m e p t h e s l p e n d n a r f t h e
f e l p r f r m c l i n r m a u n c h g e d T h e f u e l
s m p t o n c l t h n b c m e s q v a l n t t o t h e
p d t f m p a d s f c S h p l o t m a y b e o n t h e
b a f e t h i n d c t d m p (m e p) b a k m p
(b m p) F i g 18 s h w s t h m e d a t a F i g
16 d 17 p l o t t e d a n m e p b a i f o r t w o d f e r e t
f u e l r t i s

T h e f l u m p t i o n p e r f m n o f d e e l
g s t p a r t l o a d m a y b h o w n o n m l a r b a s e s
b t t h p l o t h o l d n o t b e x p t e d t b e t g h t
b c a t h f l e c t f u e l r a t a r i e s w t h l o d
T h s i l l t r a t e d F i g 19 I t i s h a r a c t e r i c o f
m t d e s l n g i n t h a t t h c r v t e o f t h p l o t
g e l l y f l a t t a t l w l o a d s t h a t i t b e
c o m e t m p t g t e t r a p l t i t o z e f u e l c n
m p t i o I f t h m a l f i c e c y m o e s w t h
r e d c t f l d i t w o u l d t h e o r y f t h
l c a l d e s e l y l b c a u e f t h e d u c e d c u t
f f t h i t e c p t w i l l b e t h e g h t f t h o r i g i n
w h e n p l t t d n a i m e p b I f p l t t e d n
b m p b i t w o l d b e t h r g h t f t h t r u
m e a u e d f r i c t n m p I t t h f n t f t
t m t t h f a c t i o n o f a d e s e l e n g i n e b y t h
m e t h o d l n d t m u r e m e n t s a r e a l a b l e
d r g h p p m t n t f c t o r y A l t h g h
t h e e f e l c n s u m p t i n p e r f m e p l o t f

considerable utility for recording such data for an engine the fact that they are curved requires at least three or even more points to fix their location on the plot

Supercharging spark engines Volumetric efficiency and thus the mep of a four stroke spark ignition engine may be increased over a part or the whole speed range by supplying air to the engine intake at higher than atmospheric pressure. This is usually accomplished by a centrifugal or rotary pump. The indicated power of an engine increases directly with the absolute pressure in the intake manifold. Because fuel consumption increases at the same rate the indicated sfc is generally not altered appreciably by supercharging.

The three principal reasons for supercharging four cycle spark ignition engines are (1) to lessen the tapering off of mep at higher engine speed (2) to prevent loss of power due to diminished atmospheric density as when an airplane (with

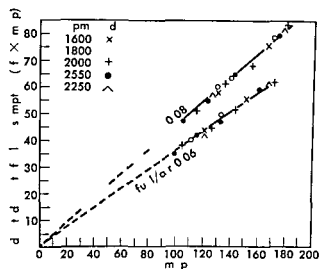


Fig 18 The $f l$ consumption data of Fig 17 plotted on the basis of mep by dividing the fuel flow rate by the power scale by the mep ($k = ihp/mep$). A line for 0.08 fuel air ratio has been added to show the effect of fuel air ratio on the slope of such plots

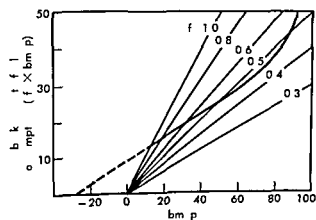


Fig 19 Fuel consumption of a diesel engine at part loads showing the curvature typical of the engine on the $e c d$ as the indicated effect of fuel-air ratio as the loads are increased

piston engines) climbs to high altitudes and (3) to develop more torque at all speeds. The $e c d$ will be discussed in greater detail.

In a normal engine characteristic torque rises as speed increases but falls off at higher speeds because of the throttling effects of such parts of the fuel intake system as valves and carburetors. If a supercharger is installed so as to maintain the volumetric efficiency at the higher speed without increasing it in the middle speed range peak horsepower can be increased with little if any increase in octane requirement.

The rapid fall of atmospheric pressure at increased altitudes causes a corresponding decrease in the power of unsupercharged piston type aircraft engines. For example at 20,000 ft the air density and thus the absolute manifold pressure and indicated torque of an aircraft engine would be only about half as great as at sea level. The useful power developed would be still less because of the friction and other mechanical power losses which are not affected appreciably by volumetric efficiency. By the use of superchargers which are usually of the centrifugal type sea level air density may be maintained in the intake manifold up to considerable altitudes. Some aircraft engines drive these superchargers through gearing which may be changed in flight from about 6.5 to 8.5 times engine speed. The speed change avoids oversupercharging at medium altitudes with corresponding power loss. Supercharged aircraft engines must be throttled at sea level to avoid damage from detonation or excessive overheating caused by the high mep which would otherwise be developed. See SUPERCHARGING.

Normally an engine is designed with the highest compression ratio allowable without knock from the fuel expected to be used. This is desirable for the highest attainable mep and fuel economy from an atmospheric air supply. Any increase in the volumetric efficiency of such an engine would cause it to knock unless a fuel of higher octane number were used or the compression ratio were lowered. When the compression ratio is lowered the knock limited mep may be raised appreciably by supercharging but at the expense of lowered thermal efficiency. There are engine uses where power is more important than fuel economy and supercharging becomes a solution. The principle involved is illustrated in Fig 20 for a given engine. With no supercharge this engine when using 93 octane fuel developed an imep of 180 psi at the borderline of knock at 8:1 compression ratio. If the compression ratio were lowered to 7:1 the mep could be raised by supercharging along the 7:1 curve to 275 imep before it would be knock limited by the same fuel. With a 5:1 compression ratio it could be raised to 435 imep. Thus the imep could be raised until the cylinder became thermally limited by the temperatures of critical parts particularly of the piston head.

Supercharged diesel engines Combustion in a four stroke diesel engine is materially improved by

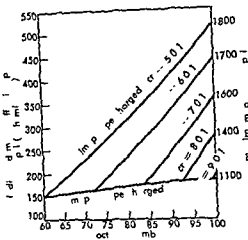


Fig 20 Relationship between compression ratio and temperature ratio for various compression processes. The curves are labeled 'is p' for isentropic and 'pe harged' for polytropic. The area under the curves is labeled 'm p' and 'pe harged'.

up e cha g g In f c f e l s w h h w o u l d s m k e b d l y a n d m s f e t l w l o a d w l l b n o t h e r w i s e t s f a c t o r l y w i t h s p e r h a g g T h e i m p e s d r e c t l y w i t h t h u p r h a r g e p r e u r e n t l i t s l i m i t e d b y t h r a t e f h a t f l o w f m t h e m e t l p r t s s u r r o u n d i n g t h e m b s t i o n h a m b e r a n d t h r i g t e m p e r a t u r e A p r a c t i c a l a p p l i c a t i o n o f t h e l i m i t a t i o n w a s m a d e i n a l o c m o t i o n b u i l t b y t h B r i t i s h R a i l w a y s w h e r e t h p w e r s a n d t h u s t h e h t d e v e l o p e d w e h e l d r a n b l y c o n s t n t o v e a n i d r a b l p e e d r a n g b y d i n g t h e u p e h a g r t n t a n t p e e d b y i t w n e n g I t h w v t h p e h a g e p r t a j e d n r s e l y w i t h t h p e d f i t h m i e g T h e c r r e p d g t r q u r e a t e d e p e d p n e d w i t h m h g a r h u f i n g w h h w o u l d h a b e e n r e q u i r e d d u g a l r t i n w i t h a c o n n t l e n g n

W h s p e h g f t h e t h c e n t i f g l r p o t e d p l a m n t y p a r e d r e n m e h n a l l y b y t h e n g t h p o w e r e q u e d b m e s n a d d a t l l t t h e n g o u t p u t E x p n e h w t h t h r d g e o f u p e h r g f y e n g n e h h d e v l p m a m m e f f i c y t o o h i g h a p e h g b b m e p o w e r t h u p e r h i g t h g n d l y t h e n g e p e l l y t l w l a d e A t h e r m o f d n g t h e u p r h r g w h h b m g g t g e n l b y h t t b w h h r m f i t h e r g y t h t l d t h w b e w a t e d n t h n g n e x h t T h m a b e c m p l e d w i t h m l l n f b k p e r t h t l t l e p w i l s t b t h e n g T h t y p e f d e e s l i s n p p e r b l r f i e v t l o d h i g h g h c d e v l p t h e c c a r y a h t p r p e l i g g t w o e v l d e s e l g n r e q u m m f e s t i n g t h t l l g t h e x h u t d e t l l d u p y l d p e t h e t a r t f t h i m p e s t r o k n d i u s e d o a f w l a r g e r M t m e d m a d l z e t w o c y l l s e l e n e r s l l p p e d w i t h b l w t o a n g

t h c y l i n d e r a f t e r t h w r k i n g s t r o k e s a n d t o u p p l y t h e a i r r e q u i r e d f o r t h e s u b s e q u e n t c y c l e s T h e e b l o w e s n c o n t a t t o s u p e r c h a r g e s d o n o t b u i l d u p a p p r o p i a t e p e s s u r e i n t h e c y l i n d e r a t t h e t a r t f e m p r e s s u r e I f t h e c a p a c i t y o f s u c h a b l o w e r i s g r e a t e r t h a n t h e e n g i n e d i s p l a c e m e n t i t w i l l s c a v e n g e t h c y l i n d e r f p r a c t i c a l l y a l l e x h a u s t p r o d u c t e v e n t o t h e e x t e n t o f b l o w i n g s o m e a t o t t h r o u g h t h e e x h a u s t p o r t s S u c h b l o w e r s l i k e s u p e r c h a r g e r m a y b e m e c h n i c a l l y d r e n b y t h e e n g i n e o r b y e x h a u s t t u b e s [N M]

B i b l i o g r a p h y W H C r o u e *Automotive Engines* 4th ed 1959 W H C r o u *Automotive Mechanics* 4th ed 1960 L C L i c h t y *Internal Combustion Engines* 6th ed 1951 H R R i c a d o *The High Speed Internal Combustion Engines* 1931 C F T y l e r a n d E S T a y l o r *The Internal Combustion Engine* 1948

Internal energy

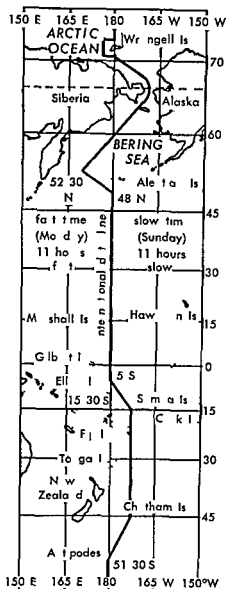
A h a a c e t e r i s t i c p r o p e r t y o f t h e s t a t e o f a t h e r m o d y n a m i c s y s t e m i n t r o d u c e d i n t h e f i r s t l a w o f t h e r m o d y n a m i c s F o r a s t a t i c c l o s e d s y s t e m (n o b u l k m o t i o n n o t r a n s f e r o f m a t t e r a c r o s s i t s b o u n d a r e s) t h c h a n g e ΔE i n t h e i n t e r n a l e n e r g y f o r a p r o c e s s i s e q u a l t o t h e h e a t Q a b s o r b e d b y t h e s y s t e m f o r m o t u r n d i n g m a n s t h e w o r k W d o n e b y t h e s y s t e m o n i t s s u r r o u n d i n g s O n l y a c h a n g e i n i n t e r n a l e n e r g y c a n b e m e a s u r e d n o t i t s a l u e f o r a n y i n g l s t a t e F o r a g a s p r o c e s s t h e c h a n g e i n i n t e r n a l e n e r g y i s f i x e d b y t h e i n i t i a l a n d f i n a l s t a t e s a n d i s i n d e p e n d e n t o f t h e p a t h b y w h i c h t h e c h a n g e i n s t a t e s a c c o m p l i s h e d

T h e i n t e r n a l e n e r g y i n c l u d e s t h e n t r i n i c e n e r g y o f t h e i n d i v i d u a l m o l e c u l e f o r w h i c h t h e s y s t e m i s c o m p o s e d a n d c o n t r i b u t i o n s f r o m t h e n t e r a t i o n a m o n g t h e m I t d o e s n o t i n c l u d e n t r i b u t i o n f o m t h e p o t e n t i a l e n e r g y o f k i n e t i c e n e r g y o f t h e s y s t e m a s a w h o l e t h c h a n g e s m u t b a c o u n t e d f o r e x p l i c i t l y i n t h e f i r s t l a w o f t h e r m o d y n a m i c s B e c a u s e i t i s m o r e c o n v e n i e n t t o u s e a n i n d e p e n d e n t p r o p e r t y (t h e p r e s s u r e P f o r t h e s y s t e m i n s t e a d o f i t s l i m e f o r t h e w o r k i n g e q u a t i o n s f o r a p r a c t i c a l t h e r m o d y n a m i c s a s u s a l l y w r i t t e n n o t t r a n s f e r u c h f u n c t i o n s a s t h e e n t h a l p y $H = E + P V$ i n s t e a d o f t h e i n t e r n a l e n e r g y i t s e l f S e E N T H A L P Y T H E R M O D Y N A M I C S (C H E M I C A L)

[F B]

International Date Line

T h e 180 m e d i a n w h e r e e a c h d a y o f f c h a n g e s l y b g i s a d e n d A p e o n t r a l s e s t a d g a t t h e a p p a r e n t m e m e n t o f t h e u n b e g i n n i n g f o r e v e r y 15 f l i n g t a d a b t a c l w e t w a r d b r l e t i m e a t t h e m a t e T w o p e p l e t a r t i n g f o r m y m d n a d t r a v e l i n g r o u n d t h e w o r l d i n o p p o s i t e d i r e c t i o n w o u l d h a v e t h e s a m e t i m e w h e n t h y m e t, b u t w o l d b e l d a y a p r t d a t e I f t h e n w e n i n t e r n a t i o n a l a g r e e m e n t a t o w h e r e t h d a y h l d b g i n n e d t h e u l d b e y n u m b e r o f p l a c e s d e n o t a t e d T o j u m p



The International Date Line

Conference in 1884 designated the 180° meridian as the location for the beginning of each day. Thus when a traveler goes west across the line he loses a day; if it is Monday to the east it will be Tuesday immediately as he crosses the International Date Line. In traveling eastward he gains a day; if it is Monday to the west of the line it will be Sunday immediately after he crosses the line.

An interesting example can be taken from conditions now nearly attainable with jet aircraft. If one could board such a plane, say at noon in Washington, D.C., and fly westward at that latitude around the world to return in 24 hours the rate would match the rotation of the earth. Although constantly under the noontime sun, this traveler would need to adjust his calendar one day ahead upon crossing the International Date Line, because he would arrive in Washington at noon 24 hours after embarking. Thus his calendar day would agree with that of the Washingtonians.

The 180° meridian is ideal for serving as the International Date Line. It is exactly halfway around the world from the zero or Greenwich meridian

from which all longitude is reckoned. It also falls almost in the center of the large ocean; consequently there is the least amount of inconvenience as regards population centers. A few deviations in the alignment have been made, such as swinging the line east around Siberia to keep that area all in the same day and westward around the Aleutian Islands so that they will be within the same day as the rest of Alaska. Other minor variations for the same purpose have been made near the Fiji Islands, in the South Pacific. See GEOGRAPHY MATHEMATICAL. [V.H.E.]

Interplanetary propulsion

Powered flight between planets. The systems used for interplanetary propulsion must provide the acceleration to propel a flight vehicle and to maneuver it along its trajectory. High acceleration is desirable for near space flights and chemical rockets seem most appropriate. Moderate acceleration is adequate for trips to the inner part of the solar system. Low acceleration during the long times for flights to planets beyond Mars will produce acceptable velocities; for such flights electrical propulsion systems seem uniquely qualified. In addition to the midcourse propulsion systems the vehicle or its detachable booster may use other propulsion means for launching, landing, and operating in the regions of strong planetary gravitational fields (see ROCKET STAGING).

Engine types. Several basic propulsion techniques have been considered for interplanetary propulsion. Two are rockets in the strict sense that they carry and heat their own fuel and expel reaction material (see ROCKET). These are the chemical rocket and the nuclear rocket. The other techniques rely on solar energy or carry their own separate energy source; they are the solar heating rocket, photon propulsor, and electrical propulsor.

Chemical rocket. The nature of the propellant, whether solid or liquid, provides the basis for classifying chemical rockets (see PROPELLANT). Both types convert chemical energy into thermal energy of a working fluid by combustion and convert the thermal energy into kinetic energy in a nozzle, expelling the working fluid at high velocity to provide forward thrust. See ROCKET ENGINE.

A solid propellant rocket, once ignited, normally burns until all its fuel is consumed. The shutting down and restarting of a liquid propellant rocket is feasible but requires special techniques. A low pressure monopropellant rocket is more easily restarted but develops lower performance (see SPECIFIC IMPULSE). A monopropellant rocket develops a specific impulse of 200–225 sec compared with a theoretical limit of 440 sec for a high energy bipropellant.

Nuclear propulsion. Three types of nuclear rocket are under study. In the fission type uranium in a solid reactor heats a working fluid, usually hydrogen. The working fluid then accelerates through a nozzle as a jet of rockets.

The use of working fluid of low molecular weight is desirable to get the product a high specific impulse than a chemical rocket in which the working fluid is a mixture of the products of combustion.

However, the temperature limit of 4000-5000 F imposed by existing rocket and nozzle materials prevent the full potentialities of the fuel rocket from being realized at present. See NUCLEAR AIRCRAFT PROPELLION NUCLEAR ROCKET.

The high intensity neutron and gamma radiation from the reactor heat adjacent hardware so that the maintenance of the equipment and human crew can be hindered with relative ease by heavy shadow shields. Complete enclosure is unnecessary in interplanetary space for the reason that the radiation is altered by the reactor and its protective load can be widely separated with considerable advantage but with the introduction of additional design problems. Iso-act and propulsion flow controls are complex and intricately related.

Future developments may modify the development of a second type of nuclear rocket. They are indicated by product and would release the energy directly to the working fluid. However, the technology must be developed.

The third type of nuclear rocket now being investigated uses energy from a dielectric decay alpha beta gamma radiation from all three alpha beta gamma particles are harmful to electronics equipment and man and require shielding for personnel. The production of life is limited and a positive system using top would require positive engineering principles. The evolution of the fuel system is a serious problem. The primary fuel flow thrust is not so high as the work fluid and sufficiently high temperatures which can be expected to develop a specific impulse of 600-800 sec.

Because of the potentialities of these nuclear propulsion methods, they are being studied. Their technical development is further indicated by the known data.

Electrical propulsion. The experimental material is being high level electrical means. The basic type of electrical propulsion are the ion arc gas jet and the electron gun. The work fluid is 15-20°C of the electron gun. The operating directly a kinetic energy in the work fluid. By the propellant gas is cooled at 50-60°C. The electron gun is cooled by the electron gun. At present electrical propulsion is limited.

In the design of plasma propulsion, the work fluid is a dielectric fluid. The design of the modulator is on the basis of the rocket, the static and dynamic properties of the propellant. The high temperature is related to the electrical field in the 10,000 volt. Specific mass

impulses over 60,000 sec appear feasible. Electrons are discharged near the jet neutralization. The propellant is preferably a material of high atomic weight. See ION PROPULSION.

In a magnetoplasma rocket a fluid of ions and electrons (the total fluid being electrically neutral and called a plasma) is accelerated by reaction with a changing magnetic field or by interaction of an electric current and a steady magnetic field (see ELECTROMAGNETIC PROPULSION). The plasma can be restrained magnetically so that as the heat the engine walls are protected. With a fluid of low atomic weight such as hydrogen accelerated by a changing magnetic field a specific impulse in excess of 15,000 sec is possible. It may be feasible to transfer over 90% of the magnetic energy into kinetic energy by this method. In its present form the electrical equipment is heavy and complex. See MAGNETOPLASMA DYNAMICS.

A steady state can be produced by passing an electric current through the plasma orthogonally to the flow and to a steady magnetic field. In this way a specific impulse of 1000-1500 sec seems possible.

The electrical power for propulsion could be produced variously (Fig. 1). The relatively fixed electrical mass of nuclear fission reactors, and to a lesser extent the heavy shields for fission and fusion, do not create a proportionately high power output. Therefore, the extraction of high electrical power from the engine may improve the overall thrust weight ratio.

Waste heat from the engines must be rejected and the jet temperature determines the thermodynamic efficiency (see CARNOT CYCLE). The weight of additional heat rejection must be added in the engine weight. Efficiency of thermodynamic processes at present development is direct thermoelectric energy conversion. This is more convenient method appears to be promising for high power requirements.

Scaling. The working fluid of a rocket can be heated by solar radiation in the temperature of

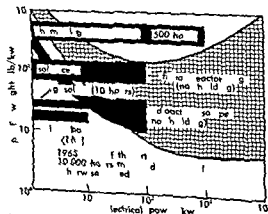


Fig. 1. Specific power (hp/lb) versus electrical power (kw) for various propulsion methods. U. S. Air Force, Office of Naval Research.

1000–2000 F (see SOLAR ENGINE) At the Earth's distance from the Sun a reflector area of 8 ft²/kw is needed if 100% of the captured radiation is converted to power (see SOLAR CONSTANT) Considering all the losses probable in such a heater from accuracy with which the reflector is pointed at the Sun to efficiency of a solar boiler the reflector area may need to be 80 ft²/kw At Mars distance from the Sun the reflector would need to be 200 ft²/kw Just how such a reflector for a high power system would be transported into space remains to be determined

Photon propulsion The radiation pressure of the photons from the Sun is about 10 lb/ft² at the Earth's distance The total pressure due to action and reaction on a perfectly reflecting surface would be twice this value Although force is limited by being directed only away from the Sun solar sailing can provide low thrusts and attitude control turning a space ship completely around in a few hours Because no working fluid is carried in the vehicle this type of propulsion is economical in weight

For the vehicle to carry its own light source a photon rocket of adequate thrust would need state energies far beyond present capabilities Because the photon velocity is the speed of light relativistic effects must be considered Also the need for cooling of mirrors precludes a practical device using present technology

Performance evaluation Each space flight requires particular engine performance Thus there is no best engine but there are engines better suited for some missions than for others The table presents data for the principal types of engine Figure 2 shows the relation of acceleration (which is also the thrust weight ratio of the vehicle) to specific impulse (or exhaust velocity) and to specific power (which is here the ratio of kinetic energy in the jet per unit time to the overall weight of the vehicle including its source of energy)

Chemical and nuclear rockets provide high thrust for short duration The other engines operate for long durations at low thrust For short trip rapid acceleration is desirable for long trip low acceleration

Ranges of specific impulse thrust to weight ratio and duration

| System | Specific impulse (lb) | Thrust to weight ratio | Typical duration (hr) |
|---------------|-----------------------|------------------------|-----------------------|
| Chemical | 100–150 | 10 ⁻² –10 | Minutes to days |
| Electric | 100–1000 | 10 ⁻³ –10 | Days to months |
| Isotopic | 100–1000 | 10 ⁻³ –10 | Days to years |
| Alkali metal | 100–1000 | 10 ⁻³ –10 | Days to years |
| Mercury | 5000–10000 | 10 ⁻³ –10 | Weeks to months |
| Ion | 5000–60000 | 10 ⁻³ –10 | Months to years |
| Solar thermal | 100–700 | 10 ⁻³ –10 | Days to years |

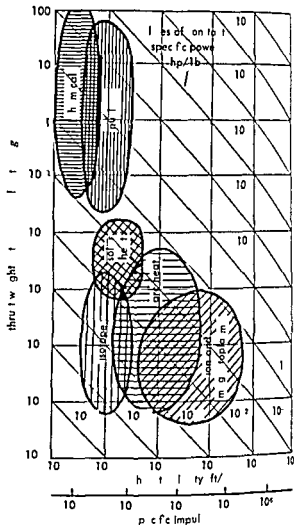


Fig 2 Regions of acceleration and specific power for various rocket engines (Jurnal of the Aero/Space Sciences)

acceleration may produce usable over all flight time For such service a interplanetary freight the high specific impulse of the electrical units would allow a vehicle so powered to carry a heavier payload than if driven by a chemical rocket

Trajectory requirements The even basic interplanetary maneuvers are presented in Fig 3 together with the engines suitable for each The interplanetary flight really starts from a satellite orbit beyond the greater part of the Earth's atmosphere. It is assumed that the energy necessary to lift a vehicle off the ground and to put it into a satellite orbit is provided by a separate rocket motor vehicle. To minimize the energy necessary to overcome the relatively strong gravitational field the thrust must be applied during a brief period. Chemical and nuclear rockets are therefore the only suitable engines for this maneuver. For interplanetary propulsion need supply only the energy to accelerate from orbital velocity and for the other interplanetary maneuvers.

Interplanetary orbit transfer is the next maneuver. Basically it is the overcoming of the gravitational field of the Sun and the correcting for differences in tangential velocity of the launching

[illegible]

Fig. 3. Stability of population system to different types of perturbations. A (Sp. Se.)

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l to th bt f the o tr pl et a d t it
p h l t the bit f the e pl et nd h
the Su t t p me f A pr t ppl at n
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 p o n t h p u t a d t h e u a y f i t h m p o f t h e
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h al loc ty f th pl t who i th S The
th t n e s ry d pe d pon th t m g f th

The last proposal on requirement is similar to the first but applied in reverse. The vehicle descends from its solar transfer orbit to a satellite orbit about the target planet. This maneuver requires relatively high acceleration to overcome a high gravitational field although not so high as is required for a land maneuver because the vehicle may make a parabolic free-fall trajectory through the target planet's envelope to the target. The thrust application will may be that the initial capture orbit will be carried out determines to some extent the required thrust.

granted in the treaty each requiring a different amount of energy for interplanetary transfer (1) mission to the immediate vicinity of Earth's Moon (2) mission with the inner solar system out to the belt of Mars and (3) mission to the outer planets beyond Mars.

For the first category of mineral hemical system the adequacy of a calculation based on 0.01 g of too small to be useful. Possibly nuclear or some limited cases solar heating engines could also be used for mineral transformation.

For motors with the inherent system acceleration of 0.0001 g at start, the data shows a different time needed. The same population system must be a also suitable for the flight except that very efficient electrical generators be added.

For many of the other lar system a cel ra
t a grate th n 000001 g w ld pod ce at s
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of sever l m ths r year n c sar fr uch
flight B c u of th r h gh p cifi impul e the
elect al p op l n systems a e uniquely qu lified
f th emis n

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D e p e n d u p n t h e x t m e u t h g e n e s m
t h t u s t g e s w l l b e d f f e n t a d i t f a b l
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cifi imp les f 300-400 ll w m der tely
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t ted t w ld p de the thru t f ever l o f
th lem t rv ma Th pr p lliant n t
pende ne l r ma r wo ld be a avail

1000–2000 F (see SOLAR ENGINE) At the Earth's distance from the Sun a reflector area of 8 ft²/kw is needed if 100% of the captured radiation is converted to power (see SOLAR CONSTANT) Considering all the losses probable in such a heater from accuracy with which the reflector is pointed at the Sun to efficiency of a solar boiler the reflector area may need to be 80 ft²/kw At Mars distance from the Sun the reflector would need to be 200 ft²/kw Just how such a reflector for a high power system would be transported into space remains to be determined

Photon propulsion The radiation pressure of the photons from the Sun is about 10^{-7} lb/ft² at the Earth's distance The total pressure due to action and reaction on a perfectly reflecting surface would be twice this value Although force is limited by being directed only away from the Sun solar sailing can provide low thrusts and attitude control turning a spaceship completely around in a few hours Because no working fluid is carried in the vehicle this type of propulsion is economical in weight

For the vehicle to carry its own light source a photon rocket of adequate thrust would necessitate energies far beyond present capabilities Because the photon velocity is the speed of light relativistic effects must be considered Also the need for cooling of mirrors precludes a practical device using present technology

Performance evaluation Each space flight requires particular engine performance Thus there is no best engine but there are engines better suited for some missions than for others The table presents data for the principal types of engine Figure 2 shows the relation of acceleration (which is also the thrust weight ratio of the vehicle) to specific impulse (or exhaust velocity) and to specific power (which is here the ratio of kinetic energy in the jet per unit time to the overall weight of the vehicle including its source of energy)

Chemical and nuclear rockets provide high thrust for short durations The other engines operate for long durations at low thrust For short trip rapid acceleration is desirable for long trips slow ac-

Range of specific impulse thrust to weight ratio and duration

| System | Specific impulse | Thrust to weight ratio | Typical duration |
|----------------------|------------------|------------------------|---|
| Chemical | 100–400 | 10 ⁻² –10 | Minutes (high thrust) to hours (low thrust) |
| Fusion | 500–1000 | 10 ⁻² –10 | Seconds to minutes |
| Ion propulsion | 1000–7000 | 10 ⁻³ –10 | Days |
| Electrostatic | 1000–10000 | 10 ⁻⁴ –10 | Days |
| Magnetoplasmadynamic | 5000–10000 | 10 ⁻³ –10 | Weeks |
| Thermal nuclear | 5000–60000 | 10 ⁻³ –10 | Months |
| Solar thermal | 400–700 | 10 ⁻⁴ –10 | Days |

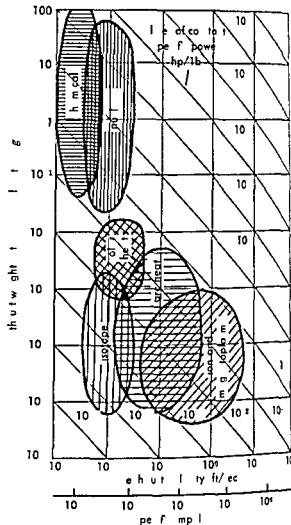


Fig 2 Regions of accelerations and specific power for various rockets (Jural of the Aero/Space Sciences)

celeration may produce usable over all flight time For such service as interplanetary freight the high specific impulse of the electrical units would allow a vehicle so powered to carry a heavier payload than if driven by a chemical rocket

Trajectory requirements The seven basic interplanetary maneuvers are presented in Fig 3 together with the engines suitable for each The interplanetary flight really starts from a satellite orbit beyond the greater part of the Earth's atmosphere It is assumed that the energy necessary to lift a vehicle off the ground and to put it into a satellite orbit is provided by separated rocket booster vehicle To minimize the energy necessary to overcome the relatively strong gravitational field the thrust should be applied during a brief period Chemical and nuclear rockets are therefore the only suitable engines for this maneuver Interplanetary propulsion need supply only the energy to accelerate from orbital velocity and for the orbital interplanetary maneuvers

Interplanetary orbital transfer is the next maneuver Basically it is the overcoming of the gravitational field of the Sun and the correcting for differences in tangential velocities of the launching

for later portions of the trip. Even so, having at least two stages—one for high and one for low thrust—seems favorable for interplanetary and orbit transfer maneuvers.

Environment During any of these missions the engine with the vehicle is exposed to unusual environmental conditions. Prolonged exposure to high vacuum precludes use of materials that evaporate. For example, some soldered joints contain materials that will slowly evaporate in space.

Over most of the interplanetary trajectory gravitational acceleration will be very small. Positioning switches and other components are the necessary gravity cannot provide a return force. Similarly a liquid and its vapor will be difficult to separate. In space electromagnetic radiation and corpuscular impacts may alter the properties of the materials used in the engine and in the vehicle.

The over all vehicle should maintain thermal equilibrium. Ambient temperature can be con-

| | d | p | e | to | f | a | bl | th | t | v | bl | v | to | t | k | off | g | owth | p | bly | l | t | mpl | ty | s | t | ap | bly | d | mp | t | of | P | t | day | lab | ly | | |
|----------------|---|---|---|----|---|---|----|----|---|---|----|---|----|---|---|-----|---|------|---|-----|---|---|-----|----|---|---|----|-----|---|----|---|----|---|---|-----|-----|----|---|---|
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| h m l | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | |
| old p pl l t | ○ | ○ | ● | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| h m l | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| f s | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| t p | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
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| | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
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| l l | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |

O w l l k o w f b l O t o l m t e d

● l g l y p l d d f f t

Fig. 4 Comparison of technical features of propulsion systems (Journal of the Aero/Space Sciences)

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n m b e of b y l m

Fig 5 Relative complexity of various propulsion systems (J - ratio of the Aero/Space Sciences)

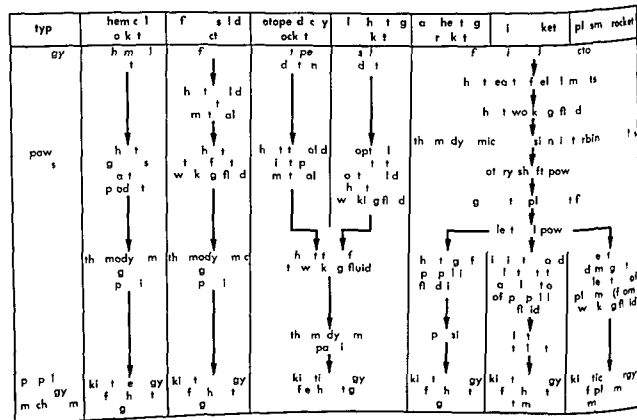


Fig. 6. Energy cankers in various rocks. (Journ. of the Astrosp. Soc.)

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Fig 5 Th m wh t r b r tary energy on
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| monopr pella t | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
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| f io | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| radio t isotope det y | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| hea g | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| mag pla m | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
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Fig 7 De elopm t t t of va lo ock t g i t
(J f f th A /Spa Scie)

cal rocket has been dev l ped a f f i e n t l y so that
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n l v a s i l a b l e e g n e to i n t e r p l e t a r y f l ght
Work o t h e r g i e t y p e h s b e e n i t t i e d
(Fig 7)

Th e g i n e s th t d r v e th g r e t e s t e f f r i a r e
th t w i n g the g r e a t t p r m e b o t h i n e f f i c i e n t
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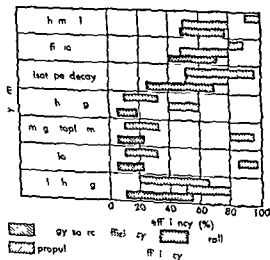


Fig 8 R l t f f c f p w f o
d f l e t p p l y t m U f f the A e /
Sp S)

sion of energy to high thrust as summarized in Fig 8 The chemical and nuclear engines are the only ones with a high acceleration capability If an efficient lightweight electric generator could be found the electric systems with their versatility would be highly attractive and accelerations higher than 0.00001 g could be attained See SATELLITE ARTIFICIAL SPACE STATION SPACE TECHNOLOGY see also SPACE FLIGHT SPACE VEHICLE SPACE CRAFT STRUCTURE [GPS]

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Interpolation

A process in mathematics used to estimate an intermediate value of one (dependent) variable which is a function of a second (independent) variable when values of the dependent variable corresponding to several discrete values of the independent variable are known An example may illustrate the process

Suppose as is often the case that it is desired to describe graphically the results of an experiment in which some quantity Q is measured for example the electrical resistance of a wire for each of a set of N values of a second variable v representing perhaps the temperature of the wire Let the numbers Q_1, Q_2, \dots, Q_N be the measurements made of Q and the numbers v_1, v_2, \dots, v_N be those of the variable v These numbers representing the raw data from the experiment are usually given in the form of a table with each Q_i listed opposite the corresponding v_i The problem of interpolation is to use the above discrete data to predict the value of Q corresponding to any value of v lying between the above v_i If the value of v is permitted to lie outside these v_i the somewhat more risky process of extrapolation is used See EXTRAPOLATION

Graphical interpolation The above experimental data may be expressed in graphical forms by plotting a point on a sheet of paper for each pair of values (v_i, Q_i) of the variables One establishes suitable scales by letting one inch represent a given number of units of v and of Q If v is considered to be the independent variable one usually lets the horizontal displacement of the i th point represent v_i and its vertical displacement represent Q_i

If for simplicity it is assumed that the experimental errors in the data can be neglected then the problem of interpolation becomes that of drawing a curve through the N data points P_i having coordinates (x_i, y_i) that are proportional to the numbers v_i and Q_i respectively so as to give an accurate prediction of the value Q for all intermediate values of v Since it is at once clear that the N measurements made would be consistent with

any curve passing through the points some additional assumptions are necessary in order to justify drawing any particular curve through the points Usually one assumes that the v_i are close enough together that a smooth curve with a simple variation as possible should be drawn through the points

In practice the numbers v_i and Q_i will contain some experimental error and therefore one should not require that the curve pass exactly through the points The greater the experimental uncertainty the farther one can expect the true curve to deviate from the individual points In some cases one uses the points only to suggest the type of simple curve to be drawn and then adjusts this type of curve to pass as near the individual points as possible This may be done by choosing a function that contains a few arbitrary parameters that may be so adjusted as to make the plot of the function miss the points as little as possible For a more complete discussion of this topic see CURVE FITTING For many purposes however one uses a French curve and orients it so that one of its edges passes very near a group of the points Having drawn in this portion of the curve the edge of the French curve is moved so as to approximate the next group of points An attempt is made to join up these portions of the curve in such a way that there is no discontinuity of slope or curvature at any point

Tabular interpolation This includes methods for finding from a table the values of the dependent variable for intermediate values of the independent variable Its purpose is the same as graphical interpolation but one seeks a formula for calculating the value of the dependent variable rather than relying on a measurement of the ordinate of a curve

For the purposes of this discussion it will be assumed that x_i and y_i ($i = 1, 2, \dots, N$) representing tabulated values of the independent and dependent variables respectively are accurate to the full number of figures given Interpolation then involves finding an interpolating function $P(x)$ satisfying the requirement that to the number of figures given the plot of Eq (1) pass through a set

$$y = P(x) \quad (1)$$

selected number of points of the set having coordinates (x, y) The interpolating function $P(x)$ should be of such a form that it is made to pass readily through the selected point and is easily calculated for any intermediate value of x Since many schemes are known for determining quickly the unique n th degree polynomial that satisfies Eq (1) at any $n+1$ of the tabulated values and since the value of such a polynomial may be computed using only n multiplications and n additions plus nominal are the most common forms of interpolating functions

If the x and y are realigned so that the point through which Eq (1) passes are n in (x, y) (x_1, y_1) the polynomial

In ded i Eq (1) may be wr tten down by in
it and o e has

$$y = \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{L_k(x)}{L(x)} y_k \quad (2)$$

re

$$L_k(x) = \frac{(x-x_0)(x-x_1)\dots(x-x_{k-1})(x-x_{k+1})\dots(x-x_n)}{(x-x_k)} \quad (3)$$

i i Lagrange's interpolati n f r mul f r u
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u n n

$$y = \frac{x-x_0}{x-x_1} y_0 + \frac{x-x_1}{x-x_0} y_1 \quad (4)$$

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$$\frac{(-x)(-x_1)\dots(-x_{n-1})}{(n-1)!} f^{(n-1)}(0) \quad (5)$$

h e f m (5) th (+ 1) th d r i u e f
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th al e f e i n t known the remai d r term
u d m r y t set an uppe l m t on th tru c t o n
o i o d ed by s g Lag g s i te pol t o n
form l

If th d i te a eq lly p ced th t s
= + h wh r h i the n t r v l of t b u l t n
Lagr ges n t e r p l a t n f r mul m p l i es
d ably and may b wr t n

$$y = \sum_{k=0}^n A_k(y) = A_0(y) + A_1(y) + \dots + A_n(y) \quad (6)$$

wh th degr f nt polat g p l y n m al
th t w i th gh th + 1 p nt
(x y) (x y) H p s th l r g e s t
n t e r l s th n o r q a l t / 2 d the A ()
A () e p o l y n o m i th a r b l

$$= \frac{x-a}{h} \quad (7)$$

The latte p l y n m a l s h v e b e n t b l t e d a
l u t f u

Inverse interpolation If the valu f y i known
and the alue of the correspond ing independ nt
variable x i de red ne ha th pr l l m of in
er e interpolati n Snc the p o l y n m i a l A (u)
in Eq (6) are kn wn fu c t i n f u and th alues
of y and y_k are also known th nly nkn wn in th
equati n i u Th the pr l l m t e d u e s t that of
find ng a re l o c t u f an nth-degre p o l y n m i a l
n the ra ge 0 < u < 1 (F d e s i n f n u
meri al methods f r sol ng f r u h a root and
f r m re inform t i n o n i t e r p o l t i n s N u m e r i c a l
A N A L Y S I s H a ng f u d u n may find x
f m Eq (7)

One may also pass from an y n t e r p o l a t i o n
by tre t ng x as a f t i n f y S n e h o w e r
the interval between th y are n t eq a l i t i n e e
e a r y t e m p l y the g e n e r a l i n t e r p o l a t i o n f r
mula of Eq () with the x and y int r e h a n g e d

Round-off errors In th calulated values, round
off errors, res lting fr m th n e e l t o x p e s the
ent r e y of th tall a f i n t d e c i m a l w l c a u s e
an addit i o n a l e r r in the int r p o l a t e d v a l e of y
that mu t be added t th t r u n c t i o n e r r d i s c u
e u e d b e f o r e The effect f these e r r o n th
ap p l a t i f Lagrang i t r p o l a t i n f r m i l i
seen by Eq (6) t b e a total e r r i n y g n l y

$$e_r = \sum A_k(u) e_k \quad (8)$$

Let u_k be malle t p o u e n m b e r t i y i n g
the co d t i e > |x| f r all k ne has fr m Eq
(8) that

$$|e_r| \leq \sum |A_k(u)| |e_k| \leq \sum |A_k(u)| \quad (9)$$

S n c the s m of the A_k() i eq (11) the f
t r

$$\sum_k |A_k(u)|$$

n Eq (9) s u a l l y n t m u c h l a g r th n 2 o 3
a d th s th i t r p o l a t e d a l u e l y h a s a b o i t the
s m r o u n d o f f e r a the i d i d u a l e n t r i e s

Use of finite differences F o m e p u r p o s e s u
i m o e c n v e n t t o u e an i n t e r p o l a t g f r m u l a
b a s e d n t m u h n the e n t e s y of a e n t a l
d i f f e n c e t a l a s p o n th e i r d i f f e r e n c e s

| | | | | | |
|----------------|----------------|-----------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| x | y | | | | |
| x ₀ | y ₀ | Δy ₀ | Δ ² y ₀ | Δ ³ y ₀ | Δ ⁴ y ₀ |
| x ₁ | y ₁ | Δy ₁ | Δ ² y ₁ | Δ ³ y ₁ | Δ ⁴ y ₁ |
| x ₂ | y ₂ | Δy ₂ | Δ ² y ₂ | Δ ³ y ₂ | Δ ⁴ y ₂ |
| x ₃ | y ₃ | Δy ₃ | Δ ² y ₃ | Δ ³ y ₃ | Δ ⁴ y ₃ |
| x ₄ | y ₄ | Δy ₄ | Δ ² y ₄ | Δ ³ y ₄ | Δ ⁴ y ₄ |

E ch d f f e Δ y i s obtained by sub t a c t i g
th q a n t i t y i m m e d i t l y b o e and to the left of

sion of energy to high thrust as summarized in Fig 8 The chemical and nuclear engines are the only ones with a high acceleration capability If an efficient lightweight electric generator could be found the electric systems with their versatility would be highly attractive and accelerations higher than 0.00001 g could be attained See SATELLITE ARTIFICIAL SPACE STATION SPACE TECHNOLOGY see also SPACE FLIGHT SPACE VEHICLE SPACE CRAFT STRUCTURE [CPS]

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Interpolation

A process in mathematics used to estimate an intermediate value of one (dependent) variable which is a function of a second (independent) variable when values of the dependent variable corresponding to several discrete values of the independent variable are known An example may illustrate the process

Suppose as is often the case that it is desired to describe graphically the results of an experiment in which some quantity Q is measured for example the electrical resistance of a wire for each of a set of N values of a second variable v representing perhaps the temperature of the wire Let the numbers $Q_1 = 1, 2, \dots, N$ be the measurements made of Q and the numbers v be those of the variable v These numbers representing the raw data from the experiment are usually given in the form of a table with each Q listed opposite the corresponding v The problem of interpolation is to use the above discrete data to predict the value of Q corresponding to any value of v lying between the above v If the value of v is permitted to lie outside these v the somewhat more risky process of extrapolation is used See EXTRAPOLATION

Graphical interpolation The above experimental data may be expressed in graphical forms by plotting a point on a sheet of paper for each pair of values (v_i, Q_i) of the variables One establishes suitable scales by letting one inch represent a given number of units of v and of Q If v is considered to be the independent variable one usually lets the horizontal displacement of the i th point represent v_i and its vertical displacement represent Q_i

If for simplicity it is assumed that the experimental errors in the data can be neglected then the problem of interpolation becomes that of drawing a curve through the N data points P having coordinates (x_i, y_i) that are proportional to the numbers v_i and Q_i respectively so as to give an accurate prediction of the value Q for all intermediate values of v Since it is at once clear that the N measurements made would be consistent with

any curve passing through the points some additional assumptions are necessary in order to justify drawing any particular curve through the points Usually one assumes that the points are close enough together that a smooth curve with a simple variation as possible should be drawn through the points

In practice the numbers v_i and Q_i will contain some experimental error and therefore the curve should not require that the curve pass exactly through the points The greater the experimental uncertainty the farther one can expect the true curve to deviate from the individual points In some cases one uses the points only to suggest the type of simple curve to be drawn and then adjusts this type of curve to pass as near the individual points as possible This may be done by choosing a function that contains a few arbitrary parameters that may be so adjusted as to make the plot of the function miss the points as little as possible For a more complete discussion of this topic see CURVE FITTING For many purposes however one uses a French curve and orients it so that one of its edges passes very near a group of the points Having drawn in this portion of the curve the edge of the French curve is moved so as to approximate the next group of points An attempt is made to join up these portions of the curve in such a way that there is no discontinuity of slope or curvature at any point

Tabular interpolation This includes methods for finding from a table the values of the dependent variable for intermediate values of the independent variable Its purpose is the same as graphical interpolation but one seeks a formula for calculating the value of the dependent variable rather than relying on a measurement of the ordinate of a curve

For the purposes of this discussion it will be assumed that x_i and y_i ($i = 1, 2, \dots, N$) representing tabulated values of the independent and dependent variables respectively are accurate to the full number of figures given Interpolation then involves finding an interpolating function $P(x)$ satisfying the requirement that to the number of figures given the plot of Eq (1) pass through a selected

$$y = P(x) \quad (1)$$

number of points of the set having coordinates (x, y) The interpolating function $P(x)$ should be of such a form that it is made to pass readily through the selected points and is easily calculated for any intermediate value of x Since many schemes are known for determining quickly the unique n th degree polynomial that satisfies Eq (1) at any $n + 1$ of the tabulated values and since the value of such a polynomial may be computed using only n multiplications and n addition operations are the most common form of interpolating functions

If the independent x and y are regarded so that the point through which Eq (1) passes are now (x, y) (x_1, y_1) (x, y) the polynomial

values of $f(x)$ tabulated at some interval $\Delta x = h$ they are admirably depicted by numerical computations. For this reason numerical solution of differential equations in the case of approximating the equation by a usual difference equation.

For ordinary differential equation the transformation to a difference equation can be made by replacing each derivative in the equation by the appropriate difference expression according to the formula

$$f^{(n)}(x) \rightarrow \frac{1}{h^n} \delta^n f(x) \\ \Delta^n f(x) \rightarrow \frac{1}{2h^{n+1}} \left[\delta^{n+1} f\left(x + \frac{h}{2}\right) + \delta^{n+1} f\left(x - \frac{h}{2}\right) \right] \quad (15)$$

where $f(x)$ designates the function $f(x)$. The difference equation resulting can then be used before being used to express the relation between the values of $f(x)$ at the discrete points $x = x_0 + sh, s = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n$.

Partial difference equations. Suppose one wishes to specify a function of two variables $f(x, y)$ by giving the value of f at regular intervals in the xy plane having coordinates (x_n, y_n) . In this case the function f is a partial difference equation so $f(x, y)$ has a partial difference equation.

$$\sum A_{ij} f(x_i + y_j) = g(x, y) \quad (16)$$

where $g(x, y)$ is a known function and A_{ij} are the coefficients of the difference equation. A difference equation of the form $f(x, y) = g(x, y)$ is called a partial difference equation.

If empirical quantities make-up of the

$$x_m = a + mh \\ y = y_0 + nh \quad (17)$$

the Laplace difference equation is approximated by the difference equation

$$f_{i+1,j} + f_{i,j+1} + f_{i,j} - 4f_{i,j} = 0 \quad (18)$$

where $f_{i,j}$ are the values of f at the points (x_i, y_j) .

$$f = f(x, y) \quad (19)$$

GRAPHIC METHODS. LATTICE (MATHEMATICS)

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Interstellar matter

Material between the stars. Interstellar matter is known in many ways. Not only by spectrographical observations but also by the way it affects the light of stars.

bright patches of nebular material. The light from the patches exhibit emission line spectra characteristic of a gas at low density. Other clouds are bright because they reflect the light of a nearby star or stars and hence must be made of small solid particles. The clouds and the illuminating star have similar spectra. Frequently stars have a redder color than is predicted by their spectral characteristics the result of intervening material not unlike small dust particles which reddens any light passing through. Distant stars often exhibit absorption lines in their spectra which are produced by interstellar gas. Finally the light of many stars is polarized and the correlation between the degree of polarization and the distance of the star suggests that a material of crystalline form exists in interstellar space.

Nearly all interstellar material in our galaxy is located in the spiral arms. Radio observations have detected hydrogen gas in the nuclei of the galaxy but no obscuring matter has been observed. In other galaxies the characteristic emission spectrum of interstellar gas is frequently seen particularly in the spiral galaxies. Spiral galaxies seen edge-on always show a conspicuous band of absorption material silhouetted against the bright nucleus and spiral arms. **Spiral galaxies. GALAXY. EXTERNAL GALAXY. THE.**

Bright gaseous nebulae. Only in the neighborhood of a star hot enough and bright enough to excite the gas to luminescence can there be a bright gaseous nebula (see NEBULA. CASES). The star itself may be the source of the gas as in the case of planetary nebulae and the shell around a variable star (see CRAB NEBULA). The Orion nebula is the best known diffuse gaseous nebula (see ORION NEBULA). The electron densities determined for gaseous nebulae are of the order of 10^{10} electrons/cm³ and the kinetic temperatures are about 10,000 K. The composition is a small fraction of hydrogen atoms and 90% helium. The number of atoms is

Although ordinary gases are necessary for the presence of a definite cloud of interstellar gas, gas occurs in most parts of the galaxy with a high degree of density. It is detectable by spectral emission lines of the hot bright stars. Because the gas is highly atomized and mostly ionized, each free electron is called a free electron. Here the density may be as low as 1 atom/cm³ and the radius of the region of ionized hydrogen may extend to 10 parsecs (326 light years). Here (in the hydrogen) regions have been detected by observing the hydrogen emission lines of 21-cm wavelength with radio telescopes. Here again the density is about 1 atom/cm³ and the temperature must be typical of the space in the regions of ordinary occupied by the Sun.

Reflection nebulae. Frequently bright diffuse nebulae are observed appearing dark in the spectra. Such nebulae contain small solid particles or grains which reflect the light from the nearby star or

it from the quantity immediately below and to the left thus

$$\delta^k y = \delta^{k-1} y_{+1/2} - \delta^{k-1} y_{-1/2} \quad (10)$$

where k and $2s$ are required to be integers. For example

$$\delta y_{1/2} = y_1 - y_0 \quad \text{and} \quad \delta^2 y_0 = \delta y_{1/2} - \delta y_{-1/2}$$

An interesting property of a difference table is that if y the dependent variable tabulated is a polynomial of the n th degree in x its k th difference column will represent a polynomial of degree $n - k$. In particular its n th differences will all be equal and all higher differences will be zero. For example consider a table of cubes and the difference table formed from it by the rule given above

| x | $y = x^3$ |
|-----|-----------|
| 0 | 0 |
| 1 | 1 |
| 2 | 8 |
| 3 | 27 |
| 4 | 64 |
| 5 | 125 |
| 6 | 216 |

Most functions $f(x)$ when tabulated at a small enough interval $\Delta x = h$ behave approximately as polynomials and therefore give rise to a difference table in which some order of difference is nearly constant. Consider for example the difference table of $\log x$ in which the third differences fluctuate between 7 and 9 times 10

| x | $y = \log_e x$ | δy | $\delta^2 y$ | $\delta^3 y$ |
|------|----------------|------------|--------------|--------------|
| 1.00 | 0.0000 000 | | | |
| 1.01 | 0.0043 214 | 43 214 | | |
| 1.02 | 0.0086 002 | 42 788 | -126 | |
| 1.03 | 0.0128 372 | 42 300 | -418 | 8 |
| 1.04 | 0.0170 333 | 41 961 | -109 | 9 |
| 1.05 | 0.0211 893 | 41 560 | -401 | 8 |
| 1.06 | 0.0253 059 | 41 166 | -394 | 7 |

Experimental data if taken at small enough interval of the independent variable would be expected to exhibit much the same behavior as a mathematical function except for the presence of experimental error. The presence of the latter will cause the differences to have a more or less random fluctuation. The size of the fluctuation may in fact

be used to indicate the number of significant figures in the data.

The constancy of the third differences for $\log x$ indicates that for the accuracy and the interval used a third degree polynomial may be employed as an interpolating function. Since such a polynomial is determined by the choice of four coefficients one would expect the interpolation formula to involve four numbers derivable from the difference table. Thus the forward interpolation formula of Gauss

$$y = y_0 + u \delta y_{1/2} + \frac{1}{2} u(u-1) \delta^2 y_0 + \frac{1}{3!} u(u^2-1) \delta^3 y_{1/2} + \frac{1}{4!} u(u^2-1)(u-2) \delta^4 y_0 + \frac{1}{5!} u(u^2-1)(u^2-4) \delta^5 y_{1/2} + \dots \quad (11)$$

If terminated after the fourth term it represents a third degree polynomial in $u = (x - x_0)/h$ and hence in x . It involves the four constants y_0 , $\delta y_{1/2}$, $\delta^2 y_0$ and $\delta^3 y_{1/2}$. Since any one of the entries in the y column may be chosen as y_0 , the differences required are picked from a central difference table for example in relationhip to this entry. The interpolating polynomial obtained passes through the four points (x_1, y_1) , (x_0, y_0) , (x_1, y_1) and (x_2, y_2) . In general the interpolating polynomial will pass through only those points whose y coordinate is needed to form the differences used in the formula.

If one terminates the series in Eq. (11) after the second term one obtains the formula

$$y = y_0 + u \delta y_{1/2} = y_0 + u(y_1 - y_0) \quad (12)$$

This is the linear interpolation formula most often used when making a simple interpolation in a table.

There are a great variety of interpolation formulas: Gregory-Newton's, Stirling's, and Bessel's, that differ mainly in the choice of differences used to specify the interpolating polynomial.

Difference equations. Repeated application of Eq. (10) may be used to express any difference in terms of the tabulated values; thus for example

$$\delta y_{1/2} = y_1 - y_0 \\ \delta^2 y_0 = y_1 - 2y_0 + y_{-1}$$

Expressed in a more general form these become

$$\delta f(x) = f\left(x + \frac{h}{2}\right) - f\left(x - \frac{h}{2}\right) \\ \delta^2 f(x) = f(x+h) - 2f(x) + f(x-h)$$

If one sets the second difference equal to zero one obtains a so-called difference equation for $f(x)$. In general a difference equation is any equation relating the values of $f(x)$ at discrete values of x . Difference equations play much the same role in analytical work as differential equations, but they may be interpreted in terms of

group of stars. Studies of these particles in reflection nebulae suggest that they have high reflectivities and are nonmetallic. Probably they are ice crystals or compounds made up of the lighter elements. The nebulae always appear slightly bluer in color than the illuminating stars, indicating that the particle diameters are in the vicinity of 10^{-6} cm.

Light scattered by small particles is usually polarized, and photographs of reflection nebulae taken through polarizing materials show that the polarization can be as high as 35%. Also the effects of radiation pressure can frequently be seen particularly when there are highly luminous stars in the vicinity of the nebula (Fig. 1).

Frequently bright diffuse nebulae such as the Orion nebula are composed of both gas and particles, as is evidenced by their spectra, which contain both emission and absorption features.

Dark nebulae. When silhouetted against a rich star field or a bright nebula, a cloud of solid particles becomes apparent by absorbing or scattering away radiation directed towards the observer. Many dark nebulae are to be seen in the Milky Way regions of the sky where the light from distant stars is dimmed, reddened and often polarized. The distance to a dark nebula can be found approximately by determining the distance to the most

distant unreddened (or unpolarized) stars, which must of course lie between the Earth and the nebula. Also, if it is assumed that statistically all stars are of the same intrinsic brightness, a distance can be estimated. Here counts of stars per unit of angular area in the sky within a small range of apparent magnitude or brightness are made and compared with neighboring areas of the sky. The dimming effect of the nebula will cause a sudden decrease in the density of stars fainter than a critical apparent brightness, which corresponds statistically to a certain distance.

One of the best known and nearest dark nebulae is the Coal Sack, which is about 120 parsecs (400 light years) away. The Gulf of Mexico area of the North American nebula is about ten times farther away. See COAL SACK.

While particle clouds which obscure stars must be reasonably large to be detected, dark nebulae seen against bright nebulae can be observed in all sizes. Perhaps the best known example of this type of obscuring cloud is the Horsehead nebula, which is located between us and an emission nebula (see NEBULA). Numerous small dense clouds have been photographed with large telescopes. Such objects called globules are often as small as 1000 astronomical units (10^{-13} km) in diameter (Fig. 2).

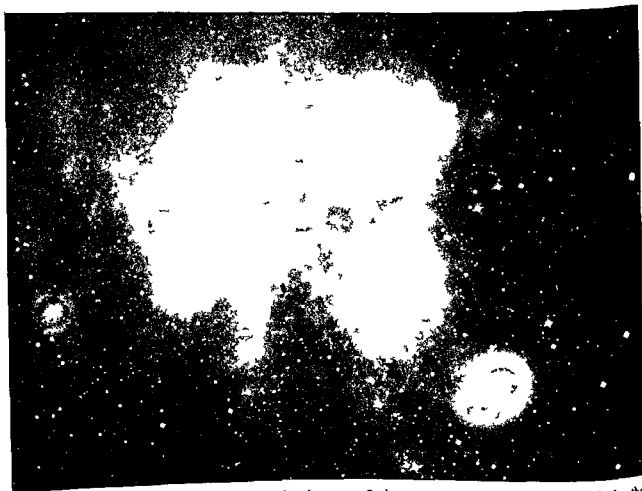


Fig. 1. Reflection nebula scattered with the Pleiades star cluster. The cloud with a brilliant pattern is composed of small solid particles about 1μ in diameter.

The reflection nebula is probably composed of the same material as the dust in the interstellar medium. It is located in the constellation of Taurus, near the star Rigel. The photograph was taken with the Curtis-Schmidt telescope at the University of Michigan.



Fig 2 Part of the RHEBI NGC 2237
It was made from the right side of the low
left panel of the photograph with the
glow of the same with the 48-
5 mm diameter of the M. U. P. L. M. Ob. v. r. y.

D k b l e m y a h r b a y w h e f o m o n l y
f w p e t f t h e l i g h t t u e f r m n y d i f
f u l d e p o j t e d a g i t h M l k y W a y
t e t l l y a l l t h l i t m u t c r f r t h e
d k e s t g l b l e s t h u g h w h h t t e n n o l i g h t n
b e e T h e l i g h t a m u t t e d b y t h e l e d e n e
n b u l e l e t l a b s b e d m k a g i t p b l e
t t m n l i r e g d g i t n a t u
t h p a t l n t h b u l a e T h a b o p t n r
e s o h y t h i p c i f t h w e l n g t h
t h l i g h t d f o m t d e s o f t h b p t n p r p
t i m a i l p r t l L G H n y a d j L
C t f o d i t h b h a g g t t h t
e t h e y i l a g i n g b o t l p n d i m t e
m i l l p r t l b i l o m d m t e r a
p o d u g t h a b p t D e f t h x p e t e d
l a g p p o t o f i l l i m e n t x i g i
p e t m e b l i l l e v e t h a t d k n b
f o m p d f e c y t a l

Interstellar gas Oth g, th n that wh ch
t n ubl n bul ha b n d t t d thr gh
t b pu l h h an b berved t th
peet f d ta t t r l te tella l ne n b
d t gw hed f m the stell r tm ph r c l by
th t m r wn d be a th y d n t
h b th am D ppl h fit th ta The
t ng t l e e produ d g ally by met l
h a l t m t b h the ut al and ngly
n z d t t x d um nd t n a f w m l ul
t au ha bee b er d u h b n nd
hyd g o b d n ge The b rpt n
t n t th l ght nd t ly m b da t

at m n t ally hydr g n are n t l s rved becau
all x c i t i o n occur fr m the ground states and
no lin fr m a n c h t r a n appear in acc e s s i b l e
r e g i n of the spectrum

The radiation intensity is extremely low, we are engaged in the comparison of approximately that falls below at 10 000 Å has been determined by the amount of ionization. This temperature and the relative strength is a rather strange intensity of the stellar gas in our region of space is about 1 at m/cm³. Because the gas is largely hydrogen the value corresponds to about 10¹⁰ g/m³.

Because many interstellar lines have equal component when observed with high precision it is known that interstellar gas tends to accumulate in individual clouds moving with its own peculiar velocity. The effect of the velocities correspond to the spiral arm in which the clouds are located. This makes it possible to use the cloud to outline the shape of a portion of the galaxy.

The 1-cm hydr g n l u i frequently re in
ab rpt wh n i d f neutral hyd og n ap
p ar in fr nt f t ng i f r d emi i n
interstellar particles In m ny w y the d r
bus n f th i t r t l l ar particles res m l t t
of the g s Alth gh tl re a decided tende y
f r th se p rticles t a umulat in cl ud they
everthe s permeate all f inter tellar pa e
within the parsl arm f r gal xy All d tant
is appe r redd ned ly th mat xial and ar
dimmed corr pond ngly The int r t l l r bas p
t as f dark n b l ries appr x mat ly a
the re pr al f the wa el ngth of the light Tl
degree f redd n ng f tarlght an be est mated
f acc rely by c mparing the l erced c l r
wth that p ed ted f m the spectr m f th tar
H wever t is not so a y to determ the t t l
b pti as a g n wavel gth Ther f e mu l
eff th a been x p ded i trying t fi d the r u
f tot l t sel ct e absorpti The best e timate
gke t that w th a erag in o r region f the
gala y app xim t ly 50% f the l ght of a t r at
a d i tan f 1000 p sees (3260 light years) i ab
bed ll the gr prod g t f is ab rpt n are
ce c y tals l i n d amet the density f the
te st l l r p rt l e mu t be i the i c n t v f 30
p rt l /cm 10- g m a flu wh h
ab ut ne hu dredth that f i t r tella g s

Be as e f i t e h g e n t r a n t i t e t e l l r
n a t i a l t o w a d t h p l a n e o f t h e g a l x y t h e s e r
g l l a b o p t i o n p i t d s t a n c e r a p i d l y
e r e a s e m r e d i t n t a s e b r v e d i n d i
t o r r i g h t a g l e s t h e g a l a t c p l n e C o n
e s e j y i t e t e m l y d i f f i c u l t t o d e t e c t d t i o n
w t h w e l n g t h t h n l p c m i n g f o m l a r g e
d s a e n d r e c t n a l t h e g a l a c t i p l a n e
T h z o n f v o d a c e w h i h r p o n d u p h l y
t t h e a e a c u p e d b y t h M i l k y W a y t h t r e
g i t h s k y w h h e n t a l l y n e t s p a c e
t o b j e t n b e b c u f t h e t r v e n g
t t l l a m t r l

Intestine

The tubular portion of the digestive tract between the stomach and the anus. In man it consists of the small and large intestines. The former is further divided into the cecum, jejunum, and ileum. The duodenum, the jejunum, and the ileum. The duodenum 10-12 in long begins at the pyloric sphincter of the stomach and curves around the head of the pancreas. The right descending colon of the upper abdomen. It receives the duct of the biliary system and the pancreatic juice. The jejunum and ileum are about 19 ft long and form a muscular tube that empties into the large bowel through the ileocecal junction.

The large bowel or colon consists of five parts: the ascending, transverse, descending, sigmoid, and the terminal rectum which empties into the anal canal.

All parts of the intestine are supported by mesenteries forming extensions which contain an extensive network of arteries, veins, lymphatics, and nerves to the surrounding organs.

The muscular structure of the intestine consists of an inner glandular muscularis and an outer muscularis. The inner muscularis is composed of smooth muscle and the outer of skeletal muscle. The inner muscularis is composed of smooth muscle and the outer of skeletal muscle.

The function of the intestine is to receive food and water, digest it, and absorb the nutrients. The large intestine is primarily for the absorption of water and electrolytes. The small intestine is primarily for the absorption of nutrients.

[E.G.S.]

Intestine disorders of

Disorders of the intestine include: 1. Inflammation (enteritis). 2. Infection (bacterial, viral, fungal). 3. Obstruction (bow obstruction). 4. Diverticulitis. 5. Crohn's disease. 6. Ulcerative colitis. 7. Irritable bowel syndrome. 8. Celiac disease. 9. Lactose intolerance. 10. Food allergies.

The most common disorders of the intestine are: 1. Inflammation (enteritis). 2. Infection (bacterial, viral, fungal). 3. Obstruction (bow obstruction). 4. Diverticulitis. 5. Crohn's disease. 6. Ulcerative colitis. 7. Irritable bowel syndrome. 8. Celiac disease. 9. Lactose intolerance. 10. Food allergies.

Common disorders of the intestine include: 1. Inflammation (enteritis). 2. Infection (bacterial, viral, fungal). 3. Obstruction (bow obstruction). 4. Diverticulitis. 5. Crohn's disease. 6. Ulcerative colitis. 7. Irritable bowel syndrome. 8. Celiac disease. 9. Lactose intolerance. 10. Food allergies.

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symptoms. The second is an inborn defect of pancreatic secretion that causes steatorrhea. Other symptoms include: salty and sweet gland abnormalities and achilia. Whipple's disease is a rare disease of middle age in which large fatty deposits accumulate in the intestinal walls and in the mesenteric lymph nodes.

Inflammations include non-specific and specific diseases (see ILEITIS, PEPTIC ULCER). Tuberculosis, typhoid fever, amebiasis, cholera, and bacillary dysentery, specific infections, diseases produced by invasion of microorganisms, may produce intestinal lesions. Various chemicals and poisons may also produce inflammation of the small intestine (enteritis). Irritation of the large bowel (colitis). Ulcerative colitis is a disease of unknown cause which produces ulcerations of the intestine, particularly the colon. See AMEBIASIS, BACILLARY DYSENTERY, CHOLERA, VIBRIO, TUBERCULOSIS, TYPHOID FEVER.

Appendicitis, the most frequent proctological emergency of the abdomen, is probably arises from a combination of causes, including infection and obstruction of the lumen and is from parasitic infestation. The prompt surgical removal reduces the number and severity of complications. Appendicitis is untreated, acute appendicitis may become a chronic recurrent inflammation with much scarring and final bliteration of the lumen.

Malignant tumors of the small intestine are not common but the large intestine has a high incidence of adenomas which account for 15% of all cancers of the each year in the United States. Other malignancies are lymphoma (Hodgkin's disease), melanoma, leiomyosarcoma, and leukemia in infiltration. See ONCOLOGY.

Benign tumors are represented by polyp, lipoma, myoma, and fibroma. Usually occur in the colon, the small intestine rarely being involved.

Disorders of the peritoneum include: 1. Peritonitis. 2. Peritoneal dialysis. 3. Peritoneal cancer. 4. Peritoneal effusion. 5. Peritoneal adhesions. 6. Peritoneal dialysis. 7. Peritoneal cancer. 8. Peritoneal effusion. 9. Peritoneal adhesions. 10. Peritoneal dialysis.

Inulin

A reserve polysaccharide in some plants especially those of the family Compositae, where it is found in the root as a tuberosity of the Dahlia. Jerusalem artichoke, a dandelion, inulin is only slightly soluble in water but readily dissolves in hot water. It does not give a characteristic reaction with iodine. It is a reducing sugar and is a rotatory substance. [α]_D²⁰ -40 (in water). Its molecular weight is approximately 5000 which corresponds to a chain length of about 30 tetrosaccharide residues. It is hydrolyzed with acid or the enzyme ulase from Aspergillus niger to D-glucose. Theulin molecule is made up principally of fructofuranose units linked β-glycosidically from the hydroxyl group on carbon 2 of the primary alcohol group on carbon 1. See FRUCTOSE. OPTICAL ACTIVITY. POLYSACCHARIDES.

Starlight is not only absorbed by the particles in space but also scattered giving the sky a faint luminous appearance. Such glow is one component of the light of the night sky; other contributors are air glow or permanent aurora and the integrated effect of large numbers of extremely distant and faint stars. See AIR GLOW AURORA.

Polarization of starlight. A. W. Hiltner and J. S. Hall found that most distant stars shine with measurably polarized light; the total percentage polarization is never large, amounting at the most to a little over 7%. Because of a strong correlation between the amount of this polarization and the degree of interstellar reddening, there is no doubt that the interstellar particles produce the polarization. The planes of polarization of stars near the Milky Way have a strong tendency to be parallel to the galactic plane, suggesting that the interstellar particles are crystalline in structure and are oriented by a general galactic magnetic field.

Origin of interstellar material. Much interstellar gas has probably remained in the same state since its origin. However, a sizeable fraction of this gas must come from stars through the ejection of material by prominence and flare activity and from the shells of novae and supernovae. The interstellar particles grow through gradual condensation of the atoms and molecules. To grow a crystal μ in diameter takes about 10^3 years, neglecting the infrequent collisions of the particles. There seems to be little variation in the sizes of interstellar particles from one part of the galaxy to another, indicating the existence of an equilibrium state.

Formation of stars. V. A. Ambartsumian first pointed out that superluminous stars of high temperature, which cannot be very old because of the tremendous rate at which mass is converted into energy, are always found in clouds of gas and interstellar particles. Such associations are clear proof that stars must form from this material. Once a reasonably large condensation of interstellar gas and grains forms, it is not difficult to show how a star can evolve. However, the process of how such condensations form is not clear. Perhaps eddies in a weak magnetic field produce them. By blowing away the more tenuous material, radiation pressure would separate the condensations, producing the small dense globules which have estimated masses comparable to those of stars. See STELLAR EVOLUTION. [W.L.]

Bibliography. L. H. Aller, *Gaseous Nebulae*, 1956; J. Dufay, *Nebuleuses galactiques et matiere interstellaire*, 1954.

Interstellar space

The space between the stars and other celestial bodies. For convenience of reference, the space in the immediate vicinity of Earth is termed near space (see SPACE). The intervening region from Earth to the Moon is lunar space; farther from Earth is interplanetary space. Interstellar space is strictly the region beyond the planet. This article deals with both interplanetary and interstellar space.

Nowhere in the universe is space absolutely empty; it is occupied by extremely tenuous matter, generally gas and solid particles from dust to meteors of 0.1–1 cm diameter and large meteoritic debris.

In the solar system, at least 99% of the solid mass filling space occurs in the form of tiny particles of dust having diameters of 0.001–0.1 μ . The sunlight reflected from this dust cloud is visible as zodiacal light, showing a strong concentration near the plane of Earth's orbit (see ZODIACAL LIGHT). The dust is dark, its reflecting power being about the same as that of soot. Its total density is about 1 g/500,000 km^3 . There appears to be a comparable amount of interplanetary gas, mostly completely ionized hydrogen, at least partly consisting of a continuous stream from the solar corona.

The meteoric and meteoritic component of matter in interplanetary space represents a much smaller mass, about 1 g/10³ km^3 . It is more conspicuous because individual meteors and meteoritic falls are observable from Earth.

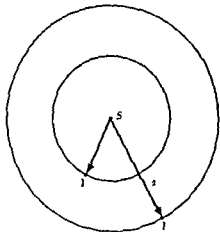
Comets with nuclei diameters of 0.1–10 km and asteroids (0.1–500 km) form the next step. During millions of years, meteor craters on Earth and on the Moon have been produced by collisions with these bodies. Unlike meteorites, they can be observed individually in space from a distance with the aid of telescopes.

Interstellar space, near the plane of the Milky Way, is filled with gas, mainly hydrogen, of an average density of 1 g/10⁶ km^3 . Everywhere it is accompanied by dust grains having diameters of 10⁻⁶–10⁻⁵ cm. The total mass of dust is about 0.8% of the gas and the gas accounts for about 2% of the mass of the Galaxy (see GALAXY). The dust obstructs light, but unlike interplanetary dust, it is white and scatters light without much absorption. Gas and dust appear to be gathered into cosmic clouds, 10–50 light years in diameter and with densities 10–50 times the average density in interstellar space. Interstellar gas is transparent; its temperature depends greatly on the radiation of nearby stars and varies from 10,000° C near hot stars (H II regions) to –170° C (H I regions). The temperature of the dust is everywhere very low, –250 to –170° C.

In the space between galaxies, the density of matter is perhaps a millionth the density in interstellar space.

Interplanetary and interstellar space also contain primary cosmic ray particles, which are atomic nuclei traveling with nearly the velocity of light and contributing a weight of about 5 g/10³ km^3 .

Electromagnetic radiation including x-rays, ultraviolet, visible and infrared light and radio waves travels everywhere through space (see RADIO ASTRONOMY). Visible light is emitted by stars; infrared radiation by the dust grains and radio waves chiefly by ionized gas.



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[W R S M]

Invertebrata

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Invertebrate embryology

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together with the character of the
make up the double fertilized egg cell
and eventually the fertilized egg cell
to transfer the hereditary material in a faithful
reproduction of the ancestral organism

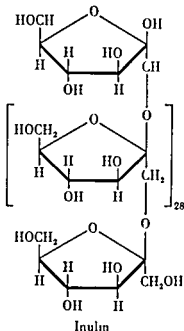
Aside from these characteristics, however, the egg and sperm are highly dissimilar. While the nuclei of both undergo the process of meiosis which prepares them for eventual union by reducing the chromosome number to one-half the eucaryotic preparatory followed by their cytoplasmic division in exactly opposite directions.

Spermatogenesis Number, motility, and mobility are important for sperm. Toward the end of the process of spermatogenesis, a single cell proliferates followed by a period of prophase I, a period of maturation and streaming. The resulting hereditary determinant is a tiny nucleus. The chromosomes are packed tightly into a tiny nucleus. The cytoplasm forms the locomotor apparatus usually a single long flagellum with a centriole at its base and a mitochondrion nearby. An organelle (acrosome) for penetrating the egg is called the acrosome. Excess cytoplasm is finally discarded and the mature spermatozoon (Fig. 1) ready to take part in fertilization. A cell attained tipped-down unit carrying the hereditary message in code and provided with enough energy sources to propel it in a uterine burst of activity on its one-way trip to the egg of its species. Millions upon millions of such cells are produced in the testes where they remain quiescent until they are pawned. **SPERM CELL SPERMATOGENESIS**

Oogenesis The egg is designed for a very different role. It must be in a quiescent state for the formation of a simple organism. Its location and development are such that you can make an excellent food supply on its further growth. It must contain enough energy yielding material to perform the work of dividing the single egg cell into body cells from which all the organs are formed and to synthesize the complex chemical substances needed to provide each of the new cells with a new nucleus. **OOCYTES**

The egg is specialized for large size and position of its contents with less chromatin numbers and no at all for motility. In addition, the cytoplasm possesses many capacities for differentiation and organization with the specific secretions in chromatin. The spider egg always produces a spider and never a fly. The fact that the physiology of the apact is so far eluded most of the effort devoted to the detection in many ways is due to the extreme.

The reserve building and energy yield materials are all added to the egg cytoplasm as minute particles of yolk and lipid particles. The egg is a cell without the material. At the end of the growth period



Hydrolysis of inulin with inulase or baker's yeast invertase produces about 15% D-glucose. It is not certain whether this glucose is an integral part of the inulin molecule or whether it is a constituent of an associated substance which is hydrolyzed at approximately the same rate as inulin. [WZ H]

Inventory management

Companies often invest some working capital in materials used in carrying on the business. The quantity and location of these materials control the annual total of the expenses and losses for carrying inventory, ordering material and running out of stock, collectively called inventory expense. Inventory management is the work of minimizing annual inventory expenses which usually maximizes the return on the inventory investment.

One phase of inventory management is to minimize the quantity of material needed to conduct business. This is done by standardization to reduce the number of different items that must be kept in stock, by choice of plant locations, by coordinating the number of products and models in the line, and by extending the use of interchangeable parts and materials.

Another step is to minimize the period that each item is kept in stock by scheduling and by choice of delivery lot quantity based on lengths of production cycles and forecasts of demand.

Effective inventory management requires records of expenses, costs, and losses that come from carrying inventory, arise from ordering stock, and result from running out of stock. From such records one estimates the effects of changing delivery lot quantities, lengths of reserve cycles, and quantities of reserve stock. Reserve cycle is the interval between the scheduled or expected dates of delivery and use. Reserve stock is material that is on hand because a reserve cycle is allowed in scheduling the delivery of material. Delivery ratio is the percentage of deliveries made on or before the day the material is required.

Changes are planned by finding what the expenses were for one set of delivery lot quantities and lengths of reserve cycle, and estimating what the expenses will be for other conditions. Care must be taken to see that the data used in the calculations represent expenses that actually will change. For example, space costs are a part of the cost of carrying inventory, but a change in the amount of material kept in stock may not change the space costs.

The delivery lot quantities and quantities of reserve stock can be calculated by examining the effects of changes in the quantities on costs and profits. The delivery lot quantities usually are economical when the related costs per year for carrying inventory equal the ordering costs per year plus the average costs of stockouts per delivery. The amount of reserve stock usually is economical when the cost per year of saving one stockout per 100 deliveries equals the value that will be paid for this benefit. The practicality of the figures obtained from these computations should be reviewed by someone familiar with purchasing and manufacturing problems. The feasibility of planning deliveries analytically (see LINEAR PROGRAMMING) depends on the accuracy of the available data including plant needs and vendor performance.

Inventory management also includes in tallying and operating a material control system which ensures that material is usually where it is required when it is required. Material control includes developing a signal that material should be ordered to meet known or expected requirements, ordering material, notifying expediteurs of the need to expedite delivery, and performing related tasks. These tasks include setting up and posting perpetual inventory records, compiling records of quantities used, where used, prices, sources, kind and quantities of material used to make the item, associated items, and similar information. Material-control personnel also gather store processes and distribute inventory management data. Effective performance of inventory management aids a company in improving its competitive position. See INDUSTRIAL CONTROL. [LFS]

Inverse square law

Any law in which a physical quantity varies with distance from a source inversely as the square of that distance. When energy is being radiated by a point source, such a law holds, provided the space between source and receiver is filled with a non-dissipative homogeneous isotropic unbounded medium (see POINT SOURCE). All unbounded wave fields are spherical at distances r which are large compared with source dimension, so that the angular intensity distribution on the expanding wave surface, whose area is proportional to r^2 , is fixed. Hence the intensity is proportional to $1/r^2$, a fixed law.

Similar reasoning shows that the same law applies to mechanical shear waves in elastic media and to electromagnetic sound waves. It holds statistically

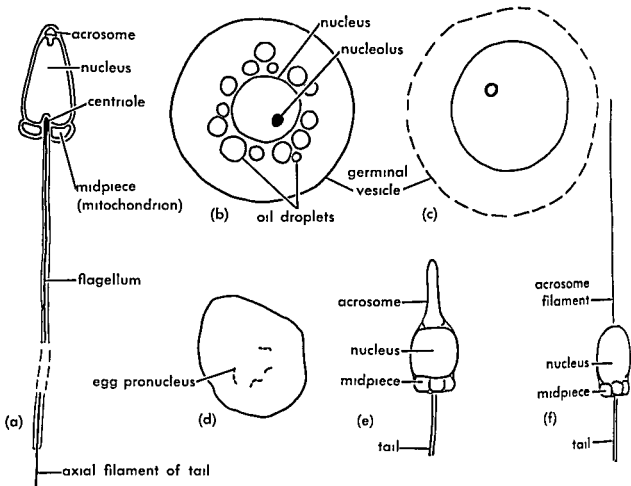


Fig 1 Spermatozoa and fertilizable eggs (a) Sea urchin spermatozoon (b) *Nereis* egg (marine annelid) with intact germinal vesicle containing a nucleolus Spheres surrounding germinal vesicle are oil droplets (c) *Mytilus* egg (marine mussel) germinal vesicle broken

down but polar bodies not formed (d) Mature egg of *Arbacia* (sea urchin) containing egg pronucleus (e) *Mytilus* spermatozoa (mussel) acrosome intact (f) *Mytilus* spermatozoa acrosome reaction

when they have accumulated the full amount of yolk they are huge in comparison with the body cells of the parent animal No invertebrate eggs however achieve the spectacular dimensions of bird eggs The largest are found among the arthropods (crayfish eggs are 2.5 mm in diameter) while some marine animals have very small eggs (oyster eggs are about 65μ)

During the growth period while the egg cell is actively synthesizing yolk and increasing the amount of cytoplasm it has a very large nucleus the germinal vesicle (Fig 1b) When it reaches full size however and this synthetic activity subsides the nuclear membrane breaks down releasing its contents into the cytoplasm (Fig 1d) The two successive nuclear divisions of meiosis follow but the cytoplasm instead of dividing equally pushes out one of the daughter nuclei each time as a polar body These two minute bodies have no further function in development The chromosome material left in the egg forms the egg pronucleus (Fig 1c) which is ready to unite with the sperm pronucleus The zygote nucleus formed by their union is comparable in size to those of the body cells

Polarity of the egg Many types of eggs show structural departures from radial symmetry which

indicate that the unfertilized egg is organized around a bipolar axis one end of which is called the animal pole and the other the vegetal pole The polar bodies are given off from the animal pole and the egg pronucleus remains in this region When an egg contains conspicuous amounts of yolk it is usually concentrated in the vegetal half of the egg

Egg membranes Since the eggs of invertebrates are often shed directly into the water of oceans and streams or laid to develop in places where they are exposed to the drying action of air and sunlight, they are always surrounded by a protective covering In some forms the eggs are laid in batches which may be enclosed in a leathery sac or embedded in a mass of jelly In other cases each egg has its own separate membranous case a layer of jelly or a more complex system of protective structures

If the young animal is to begin its development under exposed conditions as do many invertebrates the egg is provided with a tough covering (chorion) which is impenetrable even to its sperm (Fig 1a) In such cases there is a minute hole (micropyle) in the chorion near the animal pole through which the fertilizing spermatozoon can enter Among echinoderms the delicate vitelline membrane of the un-

MOLLYUSCAN DEVELOPMENT

Fertilization and cleavage The eggs of *Mytilus* the common mussel are fertilized just after the germinal vesicle breaks down (Fig. 1d). At the first polar body is given off from the animal pole the egg is surface of the egg bulges out from the so-called polar lobe (Fig. 6a-d). The bulge disappears rapidly to reappear at the time of second polar body formation. When the egg cleaves the egg cell plasma is segregated into a more extreme polar lobe (Fig. 6e,f) and the cleavage furrow divides the remaining material equally between the two blastomeres. The cleavage furrow between the polar lobe and the remaining polar lobe material to one of the blastomeres (Fig. 6g,h). The egg takes on a again segregated at the second cleavage and again mixed with the first furrow blastomeres.

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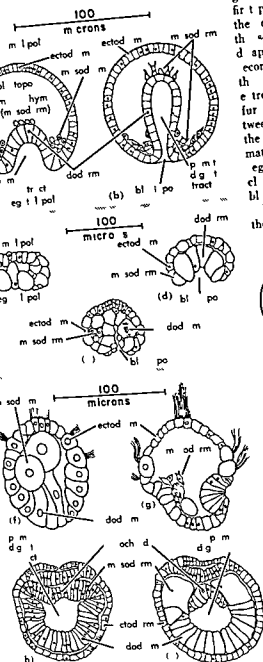
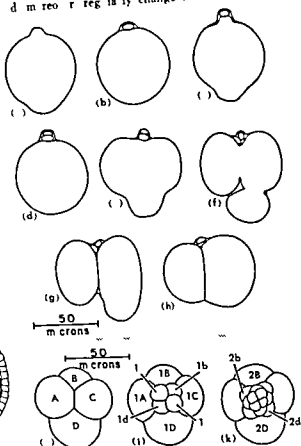


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an outer layer the ectoderm which will later produce the nervous system as well as the outermost body covering and an inner layer the endoderm from which will be formed the lining of the functional digestive tract and its associated organs and glands. As the primitive digestive tract extends into the blastocoel its opening to the outside becomes smaller and is known as the blastopore.

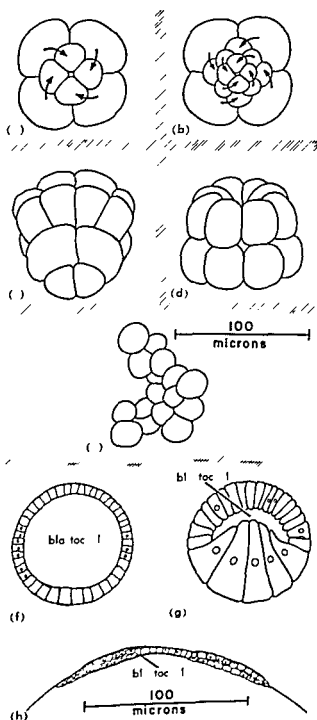


Fig 4 Symmetry of cleavage patterns and invertebrate blastulae. (a) Spiral cleavage; (c) Plateal cleavage; (d) Radial cleavage; (f) Globular cleavage; (g) Seaurchin blastula; (h) Squid blastula; (i) Salamander blastula. (b) Blastomeres and large blastocoel; (e) Acellular blastomeres at vegetal pole; (j) Squid blastula; (k) Salamander blastula.

A modification of this process of endoderm formation occurs among some species having large yolk filled vegetal blastomeres (Fig 5c). The still actively dividing cells of the animal pole spread down to cover these more inert blastomeres (Fig 5d) which become the endoderm and later form the digestive organs while the overlying ectoderm leaves a small opening in the vegetal region which corresponds to the blastopore (Fig 5e).

Mesoderm formation At this time the first few cells belonging to a third body layer (the mesoderm) make their appearance by slipping from the ectoderm layer into the blastocoel. The early mesoderm cells are of a primitive sort (mesenchymal) possessing pseudopodia and often moving about freely between the ectoderm and endoderm. In sponges and coelenterates no more highly organized middle layer is formed even in adult animals but in the other phyla the so-called true mesoderm is endodermal in origin either being formed by successive divisions of a cell which originally belonged to the endoderm (Fig 5f,g) as in annelids and mollusks or separating off from the primitive digestive tract as in *Amphioxus* (Fig 5h,i).

In either case this mesodermal tissue spreads between the ectoderm and endoderm and in all phyla more advanced than the flatworms splits through its center into an inner and an outer layer. The cavity thus formed within the mesoderm is the true body cavity in which the various internal organs lie. The outer layer of mesoderm becomes closely applied to the inner side of the ectoderm forming body wall muscles and other supporting layers while the inner layer of mesoderm surrounds the endoderm with layers of muscle. The organs of circulation excretion and reproduction as well as all muscles and connective tissue are eventually formed from this mesodermal layer.

Later development. So far it is possible to summarize the development of invertebrate animals as a group but beyond this point each subgroup follows its own course and these are so widely different that every one must be considered separately. Meaningful generalizations are not even possible within a single class in some cases as attested to the various modes of development occurring among the Insecta some of which proceed directly from egg to adult form while others go through an elaborate series of changes. See INSECT PHYSIOLOGY.

In very many species there is a sharp break in the life history when the larva after passing through a number of morphological phases which lead from one to the next with a steady increase in size and complexity abruptly forms a whole new set of rudimentary structures which take over the vital functions. The metamorphosis represents the end of the larval period. The tiny animal which produces the first fruiting organism is the offspring of its parent.

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been studied very carefully that their life histories are fully known. A few of these will be outlined in the following sections.

MOLLUSCAN DEVELOPMENT

Fertilization and cleavage The eggs of *Mytilus*, the common mussel, are fertilizable just after the germinal vesicle breaks down (Fig. 1d). As the first polar body is given off from the animal pole, the vegetal surface of the egg bulges out to form the so-called polar lobe (Fig. 6a-d). The bulge disappears shortly thereafter at the time of cleavage. The body of the embryo is formed by the cleavage of the egg into a meristem and a polar lobe (Fig. 6f) and the cleavage furrow divides the remaining material equally between two blastomeres. The cleavage furrow divides the polar lobe and appears returning to the polar lobe in a radial line of the blastomeres (Fig. 6g,h). The egg is then again cleaved at the second cleavage stage and divided with one of the four blastomeres.

It is characteristic of this type of cleavage that the meristematic pole lies in the blastomeres and the meristematic pole is the direction of

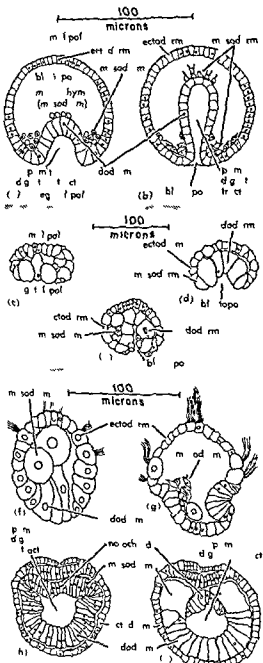


Fig. 5. Gastrulation and development of *Mytilus*. (a) Early cleavage of egg. (b) First polar body is given off. (c) First polar body is given off. (d) Early cleavage of egg. (e) First polar body is given off. (f) First polar body is given off. (g) First polar body is given off. (h) First polar body is given off. (i) First polar body is given off.

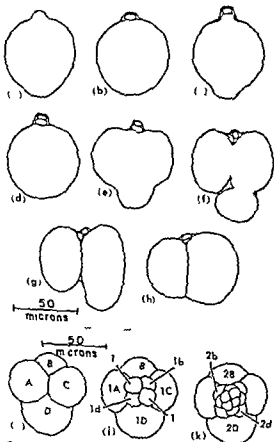


Fig. 6. Metamorphosis and development of *Mytilus*. (a) First polar body is given off. (b) First polar body is given off. (c) First polar body is given off. (d) First polar body is given off. (e) First polar body is given off. (f) First polar body is given off. (g) First polar body is given off. (h) First polar body is given off. (i) First polar body is given off. (j) First polar body is given off. (k) First polar body is given off.

an outer layer the ectoderm which will later produce the nervous system as well as the outermost body covering and an inner layer the endoderm from which will be formed the lining of the functional digestive tract and its associated organs and glands. As the primitive digestive tract extends into the blastocoel its opening to the outside becomes smaller and is known as the blastopore.

A modification of this process of endoderm formation occurs among some species having large yolk filled vegetal blastomeres (Fig 5c). The small actively dividing cells of the animal pole region spread down to cover the more inert blastomeres (Fig 5d) which become the endoderm and later form the digestive organs while the overlying ectoderm leaves a small opening in the vegetal region which corresponds to the blastopore (Fig 5e).

Mesoderm formation At this time the first few cells belonging to a third body layer the mesoderm make their appearance by slipping from the ectoderm layer into the blastocoel. The early mesoderm cells are of a primitive sort (mesenchyme) possessing pseudopodia and often moving about freely between the ectoderm and endoderm. In sponges and coelenterates no more highly organized middle layer is formed even in adult animals but in the other phyla the so-called true mesoderm is endodermal in origin either being formed by successive divisions of a cell which originally belonged to the endoderm (Fig 5f,g) as in annelids and mollusks or separating off from the primitive digestive tract as in *Amphioxus* (Fig 5h,i).

In either case this mesodermal tissue spreads out between the ectoderm and endoderm and in all phyla more advanced than the flatworms splits through its center into an inner and an outer layer. The cavity thus formed within the mesoderm is the true body cavity in which the various internal organs lie. The outer layer of mesoderm becomes closely applied to the inner side of the ectoderm forming body wall muscles and other supporting layers while the inner layer of mesoderm surrounds the endoderm with layers of muscle. The organs of circulation, excretion and reproduction as well as all muscles and connective tissue are eventually formed from this mesodermal layer.

Later development So far it is possible to summarize the development of invertebrate animals as a group but beyond this point each subgroup follows its own course and these are so widely divergent that every one must be considered separately. Meaningful generalizations are not even possible within a single class in some cases as attested to by the various modes of development occurring among the Insecta some of which proceed directly from egg to adult form while others go through an elaborate series of changes. See INSECT PHYSIOLOGY.

In very many species there is a sharp break in the life history when the larva appears through a number of morphological phases which lead from one to the next with a steady increase in size and complexity abruptly forming a whole new set of rudimentary adult organs which take over the vital function. This metamorphosis is representative of the end of the larval period. The tiny animal which produces it for the first time recognizable as the offspring of its parent.

For more or less arbitrary reason the development process of certain invertebrate forms has

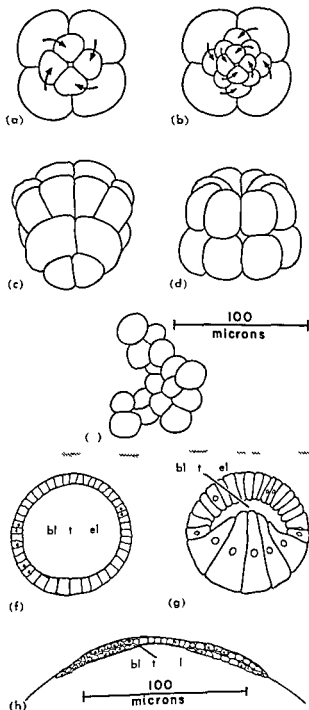


Fig 4 Symmetry of cleavage patterns in invertebrate blastulae. (a) Spiral cleavage. (b) Bilateral cleavage. (c) Radial cleavage. (d) Irregular cleavage. (e) Blastula stage showing blastomeres and blastocoel. (f) Blastula stage showing blastomeres and blastocoel. (g) Blastula stage showing blastomeres and blastocoel. (h) Blastula stage showing blastomeres and blastocoel. A scale bar indicates 100 microns.

U haped w th the mouth and anu epa ated from ea h ther o ly by the f ot there a sudden per-
iod funeual growth n th tw des f th larva
o that th anu a mo ed ar und t pen on its
neck (Fig 7) Eye and tent le ha e alre dy
ben f m d and f ally the young animal d a ds
its clumbe ng elum nd tak s up the adult
hab t of r p g bout on its foot

SEA URCHIN DEVELOPMENT

Fertilization and cleavage The fi t and econd
f a a p l a s d ide th fertilized egg (e
Fig 3) nt f ur q al bl stom res inter ect ng
ea h ther at r ght gl s ough th nimal ege-
tal x Th th d l a e cuts thr ough the e four
bl t mere h z tally The f rth clea age
p l a d vide the upp r four cells nto ight equal

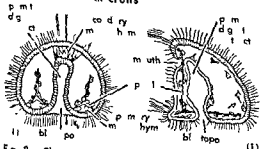
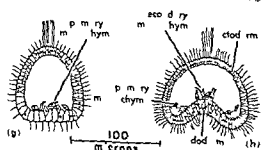
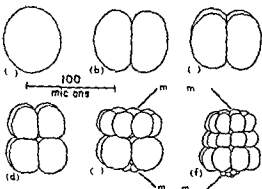


Fig 8 C l a d g s t l t th a h
() Zyg () Tw () S t g () F < l t g
lch Eight- l t g () S t g () F < l t g
p m ry m hym c b l t l (h) B g
a f g t d r y m hym c l l p
p g b l t oel () P m t d g s t t c t
d p e g b g g f p l e f m t o () l t
g l f o m d e

s zed mesomeres and the low r gr up int f ur
ery mall m m res at the vegetal p le and f ur
large macr meres (Fig 8) The e 16 lla tomer
are each d ided about equally at the fift cl avag
f r m ng 3 c l l but the eight micromere f a l t
d ide at the xth clea age so that there are 56 in
stead of 64 bla t mere at this tag lly r m ng
certai of these lla tomer res f ch as th micro-
m res) and f l l wing the later devel jment it ha
been f und that the eight m cr meres of the 56 cell
tage g r t the fr t group of m en hyme
cell the ring of e ght cell ju t also e them pro-
du e me encyme and e d derm and all th oth r
bla t mere f r m ect d rm

Blastulation The l l m re continue to d ide
s cces sely f r m ng the h l l w p l e f the l l w
tula tage B the tenth cleavag (Fig 3f) each of
th thou a d o lla tomer ha de el ped a
clum nd the bla t l h s also secreted en ough
hatchi g enzyme to d i o l e th fert l zat m m
brane Aft about 12 h urs f devel pm nt at
20 C the larva begin its free wimming per od

Gastrulation Shortly afterward the larva lon-
gate som wh t t wa d the animal pole where a
tuft f l l ng umm bile cilia appe r and f l t n n
the vegetal d J t bef re m g m a n beg ns
the cell de c ended fr m the eight micr m res l p
t of the g e tal bl tular wall int the l l toer l
(Fig 8g) form ng f the primary mesenchyme c l l
Th ga tr l t ge beg ns about 20 l ur after
f r l zat n whe the ent r f the g e tal wall
bulges i ward (Fig 8h) Mo t f th c l l s wh h
form th s pocket will be om e endode m but the e
real o om e m e chymal ell among them (ec-
dary me e chyme) wh ch will devel p p e do-
pod a that t t h ac s the bla t coel and mak
m c ntact w th th pp te body w l l direct the
inwa d xpan n f th primitive digest e tr ct
(Fig 8) A th d e f n the p m ry m e n
chyme cells re bu l d ng c l c reous p l ules w th
l m t k n from the e wate The skeletal
r dy t d in three d ection f m two point
be id the bl s t po and a th l n g the th
dete m e the ch racte tic h pe f th uc eed
ng l r v l s t ges (Fig 8j)

Pluteus stage f th pl t us tage (Fig 9a b)
m uth p n g i f r m d w th th tip of the
f m t e d ge t e t act n the body w l l The
t act beg n t f u n c t o n nd the bla to pore
ch ged int a an s th larva t able f r the
fir t time t tak food from t d S e D e u
T E R O S T O M

Metamorphosis D g th m nth wh h the
l r v p nd pl t us the body crea e mark
edly in s e and t o m o p s f r m s r add d
In prepa at f r met m rph s a t c ture
c l l ed the ecl nu rud m nt f m s the b g n ng
f the duft g n system W th n a l t l y
hor t m mo t f the larval b d y n r p r t d
nt thes org ns wh h a e c g n zable as those
f a y o ng a ch m l t m tamorphosis is com-
plet w l t e a t s off the u s u a b l p r t of its
larv l k l e t n (Fig 10)

their slant by 90° at each division so that a spiral pattern of blastomeres results. Such spiral cleavage is found in the mollusks and in the flat round and segmented worms.

Since the animal-vegetal axis is easy to recognize in such eggs it has been possible to record the course of cleavage very accurately and to determine the role of particular blastomeres in normally developing embryos. The four-cell stage blastomere containing the polar lobe material is designated as D and proceeding in a clockwise direction the others become A, B, and C (Fig. 6*i*). At the third cleavage these divide very unequally (Fig. 6*j, k*) into four large vegetal macromeres (1A, 1B, 1C, and 1D) and four micromeres at the animal side (1a, 1b, 1c, and 1d). See CELL LINEAGE.

Blastula stage After two more such unequal divisions the resulting 28 micromeres have formed a hollow blastula with the four macromeres 3A, 3B, 3C, and 3D at its vegetal side. These then extend into the blastular cavity where their descendants will form the digestive tract, except for one of the D daughter cells produced at the next cleavage (4d) which is set aside as the mesoderm mother cell (Fig. 5*f*).

Trochophore stage During the succeeding cleavages some of the cells develop cilia; the blastular symmetry becomes bilateral instead of radial and the micromeres extend down almost to the vegetal pole, thus covering the macromeres except at the small opening of the blastopore. After 24 hours of development the cilia are organized into

an encircling girdle and an apical tuft at the animal pole and the larva now called a trochophore begins its free-swimming stage (Fig. 1*a*). The blastopore is shifted forward by the faster proliferation of the ectodermal cells of the other side (Fig. 7*b*) and then closed, but the larval mouth is later formed at this place (see PROTEROSTOMY). Behind it the endoderm forms a stomach and a narrow tube gradually extends from this to make the intestine. The anus forms later at the place where the intestine reaches the ectoderm.

At this stage a group of ectodermal cells is forming the shell gland which will secrete the shell (Fig. 7*c*). Two small protuberances will unite and develop into the foot and a pair of elongated pits beside the mouth will form the balancing organs. The 4d blastomere has cleaved into two cells located on either side of the mouth which are going to rise at this stage to two rows of mesoderm cells called the mesodermal bands.

Veliger stage Within a week the shell gland has grown and begun to secrete the shell and the foot is projecting prominently. The stomach increases in size and bulges into the shell cavity and cilia from the ends of the mesodermal bands form muscular attachments for the stomach and esophagus. The girdle of ciliated cells (velum) enlarges and the rudiments of a nervous system, including eye cups, appear near the apical tuft. The larva is now called a veliger (Fig. 7*d*).

Metamorphosis Following further development, especially of the alimentary tract which becomes

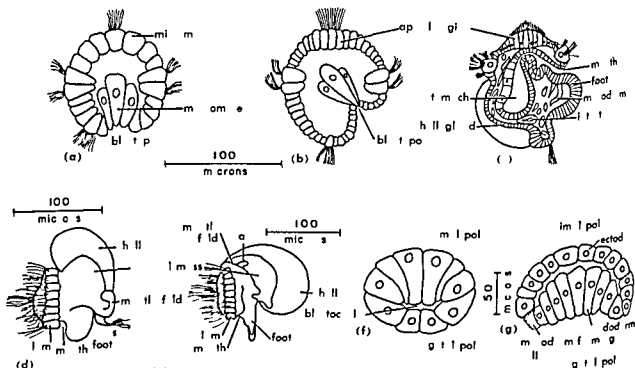


Fig. 7 Stages in the development of *Patella*. (a) Late blastula of *Patella*; (b) Early trochophore of *Patella*; (c) Trochophore larva of *Patella*; (d) Veliger larva of *Patella*; (e) Late veliger of *Patella*; (f) Trochophore larva of *Patella*; (g) Veliger larva of *Patella*.

of *Patella*. (d) Veliger larva of *Patella*. (e) Late veliger stage of *Patella*. (f) Trochophore larva of *Patella*. (g) Veliger larva of *Patella*.

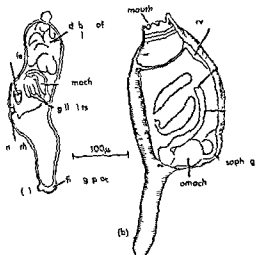


Fig 11. (a) Diagram of a fish-like organism. (b) Diagram of a fish-like organism.

int t e f g t f a w t h t e t d e r m t o p n
s a n u a d f r m a t m a h a n d a h e l k e
g l n d

A c u l a r y s y s t e m w h i c h w a s s t a r t e d r i n g
t h e t d o l t g e d e l p a m c u l a r h e a r t . F u r
n w p a o f g i l l l i t s p n s t o t h p h a r y n x . T h e
l i t d i d e a d g t f u r t h e w s o f m a l l r
l i t . T h e p r d u c t r g n s r e f m e d f r o m
r w m s s e s o f m d e r m c e l l y g n e r t h p h r
y n x . T h e s e d e v l p n t o a n a r y n d t s t u s

[J C D]

Inverter

A d e v i c e f o r c o n v e r t i n g d i c t e r e s i d e s i t
a l t e r i n g u s i t i e s . F o r l o w p o w e r q u e
s t a t i t m a y b e n e l e c t r i c m e c h a n i c a l v a r i a t o r
w h i c h u s e s n a t a s n a b a t i n g a m a t r i c r
e r s t h p o l a r i t y f i t h d i r e c t u r r e n t a t s r a t
o r e s p d g t o t h e d a d a f r q u e n c y (s e e V i
B R A O N) . S u c h i n v e r t e r s a r e u s e d i n a u t o m o b i l e s t
b a g t h s t o r a g e b a t t e r y l i g e t 115 v o l t a l t e r
n a t i n g u n t f o p a t g a p b l e a d d y
t m t p e r c o r d r o t h e a e q u i p m e n t i t h c a r
T h e a l l d e l t m i t e r t r A e l t r i c
r i t t i n g m h n s i t e r t d i a c i l
a l l d n e t i e C O N V E R T E R Y N C H R O N O L S)

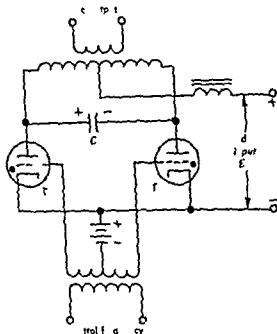
T h e t y p e f i r s t i n v e r t e r c e l t F o r
l a g r p w r e q r m n s t h e r v a l i p l a t o r
t r g l i n t r a l s d e w t h t h y r t g m i t
t o t h l i t o d e t h i d t h
c n a t g p b l m [J R]

Thyatron inverter A p a r t i c u l a r t y p e a l l
t h y r t r o n v r t i t i t h n m t h e f i g r
A n t r l s g a l b u a n e d f m n e x t m l
a p p l i e d t h e g r i d n a s y m m t a l o n
e c t a b w n

N e g l e c t i n g t h e d e p n d a m n g t h a t t h
r i g h t d i t b e T h a s f i e d t h f i l d a p p l y
l i g E p p a t h e p t C w t h t h
l i t h n d a d f u a g e d p o t i l y d e c a t e d D r

i n g t h e n e t h a l f - c y c l e w h e n t h c o n t r o l v l a g
o n t u b e T₂ b e c m e s p o s i t i v e u g l T₂ f i r e s . T h i s
c a u s e s t h e v o l t a g e - E_d t o a p p e a r a c r s T₁ a n d
T₁ e x t i n g u i s h e d . T h e n C i s c h a r g e d t h r o u g h T₂
t h v l a g e E_d b u t w i t h t h o p p o s i t e p o l a r i t y
t o t h a t h o w

I n t h e f o l l o w i n g h a l f - c y c l e T f i r e s T₂ a t t h
g i s h e d a n d C r e c h a r g e s t h r o u g h T₁ t o t h e p o l a r i t y
s h o w n i n t h e f i g u r e . T h a b o v e c y c l e o f e v e n t s i s
r e p e a t e d w i t h a f r e q u e n c y e q u a l t o t h a t o f t h c o n
t r o l s i g n a l



A p a r t i c u l a r t y p e a l l t h y r t r i n v e r t i t

I f t h e l o a d i s r e s i s t e a d h e y t h e o u t p u t v o l t
a g h a s a s q u a r e w a v e f o r m . F o r a l i g h t r e s i s t i v e
l o a d t h e o u t p u t h a s a t r i a n g u l a r w a v e s h a p . F o r a n
i n d u c t i v l o a d a s i n u s o i d a l w a v e f o r m o u t p u t m a y
b e o b t a i n e d

I t i s p o s s i b l e t o l i m i t t h e e x t e r n a l a c c o n t r o l
s i g n a l b y o b t a i n i n g t h e g r i d v l a g e f r o m t h e o u t
p u t p l a c e c u t . S u c h a c o n f i g u r a t i o n i s c a l l e d a
s e l f c o n t r o l l e d i n v e r t e r . S e e O S C I L L A T O R [J R]

Involute

A t r a n s p l a c e d t a u r v e C t h a t i s a t r i g h t a n g l e s
a l l t a g n i s f a c u r v e C . E a h r v C h a i f i n i t e l y
m a n y i v l t s a n d t h e d t a n c e b e t w e c o r r e s p o n d i n g p t s
i f a n y t w o i n l t s i s c o n s t a n t . I f
x = x(s) w i t h s = 1 2 3 a d d e p a r a m e t e r c e q
t i o n s o f C w i t h p a r a m e t e r l e n g t h n C a l l
i n v l t e s C i f C h a p a r a m e t e r e q u a t i o n X_i =
(s) + (k - s) x' (s) w i t h s = 1 2 3 w h e r e x' =
d x / d s w i t h s = 1 2 3 a d d e p a r a m e t e r n a b i t
t r y c o n s t a n t L t l n o w t h o f t r a n s f e r f u n c t i o n d e t
w i t h a c u r v e C w i t h o c c e d f a t n e d a t a p o i n t P
i f C i f t h s t g i u n w u d m a n g a t t h e
t h d o f t h t r a n s f e r f u n c t i o n i f C o f C

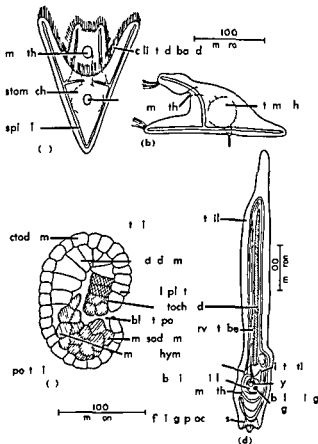


Fig 9 (a) Pluteus stage of sea urchin larva ventral view (b) Side view (c) Section through tunicate gill slits (d) Tadpole stage of tunicate larva

TUNICATE DEVELOPMENT

The fact that certain structures characteristic of vertebrates and found in no other invertebrates appear during the larval life of the tunicates forms the basis for giving these otherwise unprepossessing animals their high status at the top of the invertebrate subkingdom and makes them especially interesting from the evolutionary aspect.

Fertilization The eggs of the tunicate *Styela* begin meiosis as they are laid going as far as the metaphase of the first reduction division where they stop until they are fertilized. The spermatozoon penetrates the thick chorion enters the egg at the vegetal pole and stimulates it to proceed with meiosis. While the polar bodies are being given off cytoplasmic streaming segregates the cell components into a yellow pigmented region, a clear yolk free region and a gray yolk mass. It is possible to recognize these differently colored materials later in development and determine the role of each in body layer formation.

Cleavage The first cleavage divides the egg into similar blastomeres. Because of the arrangement of the colored cytoplasm the 16 cell stage is already visible. The 16 cell stage consists of two layers of eight cells each (Fig 4h) with the yellow cytoplasm contained in four of the vegetal cells. At the stage with about 40 cells a tail fin is formed. The prospective ectoderm making up the animal

side consists of thick columnar cells while the future endoderm cells at the vegetal side are relatively flat (Fig 7f). This difference is reversed before gastrulation begins (Fig 7g).

Gastrulation The gastrula is formed by the movement into the blastocoel of the vegetal cells followed by an overlapping growth of the prospective ectoderm. Within this enveloping layer the yellow cells produce mesoderm, the other vegetal cells form endoderm. As the gastrula develops the surface layer anterior to the blastopore (Fig 9c) forms neural tissue which is organized into a brain and spinal cord while the mesoderm beneath it forms a notochord, a precursor of the vertebral column characteristic of vertebrate animals. The notochord elongates as the axis of a tail and the larva hatches from its chorion and begins a free swimming stage.

Tadpole stage During this stage (Fig 9d) the tadpole acquires an extensive but nonfunctional digestive tract, two pairs of gill slits (also characteristic of vertebrates), a cerebral eye and a balancing organ. At its anterior end it has three papillae with which it will fix itself to a substratum when its short tadpole stage ends.

Metamorphosis When metamorphosis begins (Fig 11) the tail ectoderm contracts strongly bending and breaking up the notochord, nerve cord and tail muscles which are consumed by phagocytes. The chin region next to the organ of fixation elongates greatly carrying the mouth upward. A new nervous system replaces the larval one. The

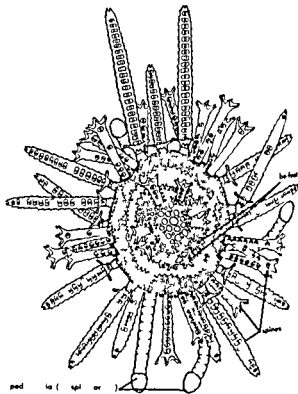


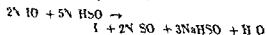
Fig 10 Yucca chilod (Pocella japonica) after metamorphosis (F. M. K. Oka, Akad. J. C. Da. M. to. ph. s. of part of larv. of Pocella japonica. M. f. as. d. dollar. Bi. B. II. 106. 83-99. 1954).

Iodine is a high atomic number element (Z=53) which is a solid at room temperature. It is a member of the halogen group and is found in the periodic table. It is a dark grey solid with a metallic luster. It is a poor conductor of electricity. It is a strong oxidizing agent. It is a member of the halogen group and is found in the periodic table. It is a dark grey solid with a metallic luster. It is a poor conductor of electricity. It is a strong oxidizing agent.

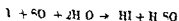
PHOTOGRAPHIC MATERIALS SALT (FOOD)
The important property of iodine is its ability to form a complex with silver ions. This complex is used in photography. The complex is a dark grey solid with a metallic luster. It is a poor conductor of electricity. It is a strong oxidizing agent. It is a member of the halogen group and is found in the periodic table. It is a dark grey solid with a metallic luster. It is a poor conductor of electricity. It is a strong oxidizing agent.

Occurrence Iodine is found in nature, but rarely in a form that can be used directly. It is found in the form of iodide ions in various minerals. The most important source of iodine is the Chilean saltpetre. It is also found in the form of iodide ions in various minerals. The most important source of iodine is the Chilean saltpetre. It is also found in the form of iodide ions in various minerals. The most important source of iodine is the Chilean saltpetre.

Recovery and production Most of the world's supply of iodine is produced from the Chilean saltpetre. The process involves the extraction of iodine from the saltpetre. The most important source of iodine is the Chilean saltpetre. It is also found in the form of iodide ions in various minerals. The most important source of iodine is the Chilean saltpetre.



The United States is the largest producer of iodine. It is produced from the Chilean saltpetre. The process involves the extraction of iodine from the saltpetre. The most important source of iodine is the Chilean saltpetre. It is also found in the form of iodide ions in various minerals. The most important source of iodine is the Chilean saltpetre.



The iodine is then used in various applications. It is used in the production of iodine compounds. The most important source of iodine is the Chilean saltpetre. It is also found in the form of iodide ions in various minerals. The most important source of iodine is the Chilean saltpetre.

Physical properties Only one isotope of iodine occurs naturally, the ^{127}I (53 protons, 74 neutrons). It is a dark grey solid with a metallic luster. It is a poor conductor of electricity. It is a strong oxidizing agent. It is a member of the halogen group and is found in the periodic table. It is a dark grey solid with a metallic luster. It is a poor conductor of electricity. It is a strong oxidizing agent.

Tracer Radioactive iodine is used as a tracer in various applications. It is used in the study of the metabolism of iodine. The most important source of iodine is the Chilean saltpetre. It is also found in the form of iodide ions in various minerals. The most important source of iodine is the Chilean saltpetre.

Iodine is moderately soluble in water, but it is more soluble in organic solvents. It is used in the production of iodine compounds. The most important source of iodine is the Chilean saltpetre. It is also found in the form of iodide ions in various minerals. The most important source of iodine is the Chilean saltpetre.

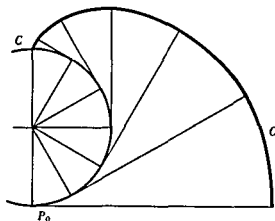
Chemical properties In its elemental form, iodine is a dark grey solid with a metallic luster. It is a poor conductor of electricity. It is a strong oxidizing agent. It is a member of the halogen group and is found in the periodic table. It is a dark grey solid with a metallic luster. It is a poor conductor of electricity. It is a strong oxidizing agent.

Iodine forms compounds with all of the elements except the noble gases. It is used in the production of iodine compounds. The most important source of iodine is the Chilean saltpetre. It is also found in the form of iodide ions in various minerals. The most important source of iodine is the Chilean saltpetre.

Iodine is a good oxidizing agent. It is used in the production of iodine compounds. The most important source of iodine is the Chilean saltpetre. It is also found in the form of iodide ions in various minerals. The most important source of iodine is the Chilean saltpetre.

Some important physical properties of iodine

| | |
|--|-----------|
| Atomic weight | 126.90447 |
| Specific gravity (D ₄) | 4.93 |
| Melting point, °C | 113.6 |
| Boiling point, °C | 184.3 |
| Heat of fusion, cal/mole | 3770 |
| Heat of vaporization, cal/mole | 9970 |
| Solubility in water (g/1000 g at 20°C) | 0.03 |

An involute C of curve C

By varying the length of the string all involutes of C are obtained. See ANALYTIC GEOMETRY

[L M B L]

Involutional melancholia

A severe depressive reaction occurring at the time of the female climacteric and during the corresponding age period in men. It is characterized by symptoms of sadness, anxiety, guilt, and low self-esteem, similar to the depressed states of manic depressive psychosis. Patients often have hypochondriacal and nihilistic delusions, a combination with paranoid reactions is not infrequent. Usually such patients do not exhibit any intellectual deterioration (see MANIC DEPRESSIVE PSYCHOSIS).

The etiology of the disorder is unclear. Endocrine processes seem to be of importance but detailed evidence for such an assumption does not exist. Organic mechanisms are probably similar to the depressive states in manic depressive psychoses. Psychological observations have shown that most involutional depressions react to real and imaginary deprivation of love and esteem with severe depression. Often a deprivation of a similar type can be detected in an analysis of the patient's relationship with his mother during his infancy and early childhood.

In the differential diagnosis organic reactions, premenstrual disorders, paranoid states, and schizophrenia need to be considered. The differential diagnosis of neurotic and reactive depression may be very difficult (see PARANOID STATE; SCHIZOPHRENIA).

Electric convulsive treatment, tranquilizing drugs, and psychic energizer, in combination with psychotherapy, are the usual methods of treatment. In mild cases electric convulsive treatment can and should be avoided. Hospitalization is usually indicated, and the prevention of suicide and self-destructive behavior is particularly important. See PSYCHIC ENERGIZER; PSYCHOTHERAPY; TRANQUILIZERS.

Bibliography: J. R. Fwalt, F. A. Strecker, and F. G. Flaugh, *Practical Clinical Psychiatry*, 8th ed. 1957.

Iodate

A negative ion having the formula IO_3^- and derived from iodic acid HIO_3 . Some salts such as $\text{KH}_2\text{I}_2\text{O}_6$ and $\text{KH}(\text{IO}_3)_2$ indicate that the acid may exist as polymers of the ion indicated by the empirical formula. Sodium and potassium iodates are the most important salts and are used in medicine.

Iodates occur along with NaNO_3 in Chile saltpeter. They are prepared in an electrolytic reaction similar to that for the preparation of chlorates or by oxidation of iodides with chlorine.

The iodates are more stable and are weaker oxidizing agents than bromates and chlorates. See BROMATE; CHLORATE; IODINE. [E. W. R.]

Iodide

A compound which contains the iodine atom in the -1 oxidation state and which is derived from hydroiodic acid HI .

The chemistry of iodine and its ability to form covalent and ionic iodides is very similar to the properties described for chloride. See CHLORIDE.

In comparing the iodide ion with the other halide ions, it should be pointed out that the iodide ion is more covalent, the least reducing agent of the group, and forms the least stable complexes. The aqueous solubilities of the metal iodides are much the same as the chlorides but in general a little lower. In organic solvents the order of solubility is frequently reversed. Bismuth and mercuric iodides are only slightly soluble. Iodide ion combines with free iodine to form the triiodide ion I_3^- .

Sodium or potassium iodide is added to table salt to prevent malfunction of the thyroid gland. Silver iodide is used in photographic film and papers.

Iodide can be detected in solution by oxidizing it to the free element with chlorine. It imparts a slight color to the solvent when extracted into carbon tetrachloride. See COMPLEX COMPOUND; HALOGENATED HYDROCARBON; IODINE; PHOTOGRAPHIC MATERIALS; THYROID GLAND. [F. W. R.]

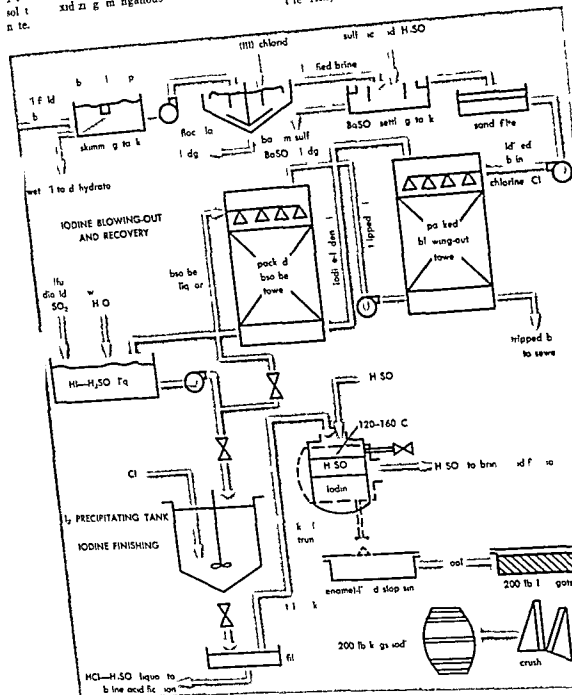
Iodine

A nonmetallic element that is the next-to-heaviest member of the halogen family group VIIa of the periodic table. Iodine, atomic number 53, exists under ordinary conditions as a grayish black solid crystal of which possesses a metallic luster. Heating the solid yields a violet vapor. See HALOGEN ELEMENTS.

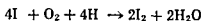
Uses: Pharmaceutical and therapeutic uses are found for over half of the elements known at the present time. One of the principal such uses is in antiseptics, but a large number of preparations containing iodine compounds are also used for the treatment of various disorders and as aids in x-ray procedures. In recent years iodine compounds have come into considerable use in the treatment of drinking water. See ANTIMICROBIAL AGENTS; ANTISEPTIC.

Per d e a d e x i t i n l i t o n b o t h a s t h e p a
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 s m l l h l o g e n s a t t r i b u t e d t o t h e l a g e r
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 d a g e a l l y p r i g l y l b l i n w a t e r T h
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 l t T h p e o d t e s a r p o w e r f u l i d a n t i n i d
 s o l t x i d z i g m n g a n o u s n t p e r m a n g a
 n t e .

Compounds of iodine-organic There are two
 important classes of organic compounds containing
 iodine the iodides and those in which the iodine is
 in a position of oxidation state
 Iodides The simple organic iodides resemble the
 other halides in their properties The carbon iodide
 bond is the weakest of the halogen-carbon bonds
 and the greater covalence of the lead iodide and the
 methyl iodide Because of this the volatility of the
 methyl iodide is the densest and the lead iodide
 the Alkyl iodides are prepared by the reaction of

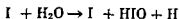


dioxide SO_2 or hydrogen sulfide H_2S . The thiosulfate ion $\text{S}_2\text{O}_3^{2-}$ is oxidized to the tetrathionate ion $\text{S}_4\text{O}_6^{2-}$ by iodine and this reaction serves as a basis for the analytical determination of iodine. The iodide ion is easily reoxidized to free iodine by moderately strong oxidants such as ferric iron and bromine. It is slowly oxidized by oxygen in acid solution.



In the presence of iodide ion, iodine reacts with starch solutions to form an intense blue color which is often used to detect iodine in very low concentrations.

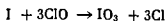
Iodine is hydrolyzed only slightly in water to form iodide and hypiodous acid in which iodine is in the $1+$ oxidation state.



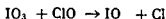
However, in alkaline solution the above reaction goes completely to the right because H^+ ions are removed to form water. The hypiodite is unstable and especially in strongly alkaline solution disproportionates further to produce the iodate ion.



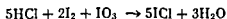
The oxidation of iodine or iodide in alkaline solution with strong oxidants such as hypochlorite also produces hypiodite and iodate.



but excess oxidant will convert these species into periodate.



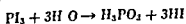
In acid solution oxidation of iodine with strong oxidants such as chlorine, permanganate and iodate will produce first iodine monochloride ICl in which the iodine is assigned a $1+$ oxidation state.



Further oxidation will convert the ICl into iodate.

Compounds of iodine inorganic. Iodine forms useful and important compounds with hydrogen, metals, the other halogen elements and oxygen.

Hydrogen iodide. This compound is a colorless gas with a boiling point of -35.3°C . It dissolves in water at 10°C and one atmosphere pressure to the extent of 70% by weight. The solution is known as hydriodic acid. Gaseous hydrogen iodide can be prepared by reaction of hydrogen and iodine vapor over a platinum catalyst but is most easily prepared in the laboratory by the reaction of water with phosphorus triiodide.



Iodides. The metallic salts of hydriodic acid are typical saltlike compounds with high melting points. Except for the silver and lead compounds (I^-) and mercury (I^-) salts which are insoluble, they are generally quite soluble in water.

Potassium iodide mp 680°C , solubility in water 144 g/100 g at 20°C is also readily soluble in methanol. Commercially it is the most important compound of iodine. It is generally made by treating iodine with potassium hydroxide to form the iodate and iodide and then heating to decompose the iodate to iodide.

Some iodides such as titanium and zirconium tetraiodides decompose to the elements at high temperatures, very high purity zirconium metal is prepared commercially in this manner.

With the nonmetallic elements, iodine forms typical covalent compounds such as NI_3 , PI_3 and AsI_3 which possess low melting points and considerable solubility in organic solvents.

Iodide ion forms anionic complexes in solution with a number of metal ions and in many cases salts of these ions have been prepared for example, K_2HgI_4 , KAgI_2 and CsSnI_6 .

Compounds with other halogens. The simplest compounds of iodine with other halogens are binary ones such as IBr and ICl which are known as interhalogens. These are low melting solids with halogenlike properties. Iodine also forms two stable reactive fluorides IF_3 and IF_5 , the former a colorless liquid, the latter a colorless gas at room temperature.

A number of metal trihalide compounds such as KI_3 , CsI_3 and CsClIBr are known. They contain a linear trihalide ion with the heaviest halogen in the center. Related to these compounds are the polyiodides (I_3^- , I_7^-) the anions of which can be thought of as complexes of free iodine and the iodide ion. They form stable black solid salts with the larger cations and compounds such as KI have been prepared.

Compounds of the $1+$ and $3+$ oxidation states. Aside from the interhalogen type compound the unipositive oxidation state of iodine also exists in compounds of the type $\text{I}(\text{py})_2\text{NO}_3$ and $\text{I}(\text{py})_2\text{ClO}$ which contain the I^+ cation complexed with an aromatic amine (py = pyridine).

Although $3+$ iodine is not known in aqueous solution, compounds such as $\text{I}(\text{NO}_3)_3$, $\text{I}_2(\text{SO}_4)_2$ and ICl_3 can be made by oxidizing or chlorinating iodine in the absence of water.

Iodates and periodates. The most stable and well known of the positive iodine compounds are the iodates ($5+$) and the periodates ($7+$) which can be prepared by oxidation of iodine or iodides in alkaline solution. Iodic acid HIO_3 and periodic acid H_5IO_6 are stable white crystalline solids which are quite soluble in water. Heating iodic acid produces iodine pentoxide I_2O_5 also a stable white solid which reacts with water to reform iodic acid. Except for the salts of the alkali metals and magnesium, most iodates are only sparingly soluble in water. Acid solutions of iodates are strong oxidizing agents but are reduced to iodine or iodide ion. The solid iodates are fairly stable to heat but decompose eventually to oxygen and either the iodide or the oxide plus iodine.

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Catio e change

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An on exchange

$$B_{(c)}^{+} + bA_{(c)}^{+} \rightleftharpoons B_{(c)}^{+} + bA_{(c)}^{+} \quad (1b)$$

with the rrespo di g ma ct o x p es n

$$K_{AB} = \frac{[B_{(c)}^{++}][A_{(c)}^{++}]}{[A_{(c)}^{++}][B_{(c)}^{++}]} = \frac{[B_{(c)}^{+}][A_{(c)}^{+}]}{[A_{(c)}^{+}][B_{(c)}^{+}]} \quad (2)$$

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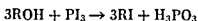
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Ion exchange resins These s e m d u p of
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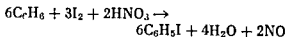
M n y a t u l p o d t a e h b t a t o v h n g
p p r t F r e m p l e t h e l l c o t n t o f p l n t
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O t h e d c n t f n d a e t h r l s l i a t e
g p (-C-OSO N) c t n a w e d a b o

the corresponding alcohol and either HI or phosphorus triiodide PI_3



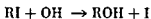
Methyl iodide which is prepared in this manner is a colorless liquid bp 42.5 C d(20/4) 2.28 It finds some use as an alkylating agent

Aryl iodides can be prepared from the hydrocarbon iodine and nitric acid

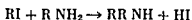


Iodobenzene which is prepared in this manner is a yellow liquid bp 188.6 C mp -31.4 C d(20/4) 1.83 It can be used to prepare organic compounds of positive iodine See HALOGENATED HYDROCARBON HALOGENATION

The alkyl iodides are the more reactive reacting with hydroxyl ion to give the alcohol and iodide ion



and with amines to alkylate the nitrogen atom



Positive iodine compounds A number of compounds are known in which iodine is formally in a positive oxidation state. These compounds are characteristic of iodine alone among the halogens and occur only if an aromatic or olefinic group is attached to the iodine

The first group known as iodoso compounds has the formula RIO . They are formed by oxidizing the corresponding iodide with strong oxidants such as fuming nitric acid. They are soluble in alcohol but not in water, are good oxidants, and are stable at ordinary temperatures. Treatment with HCl as well as chlorination of the original iodide produces related compounds, the iododichlorides $RICl_2$.

A second group of compounds is the iodoxy compounds RIO_2 which are prepared by oxidizing the iodoso compounds with hypochlorite. The iodoxy compounds have properties somewhat similar to the iodoso compounds.

If benzene is reacted with iodine pentoxide and iodine in concentrated sulfuric acid diphenyliodonium bisulfate $(C_6H_5)_2IHSO_4$ is obtained. This reaction is general for benzene derivatives and the products are typical ionic salts. The iodonium salts of many common anions have been prepared as have the hydroxides which are strong bases. Diphenyliodonium chloride $(C_6H_5)_2ICl$ a white solid sparingly soluble in water has found some use as a disinfectant.

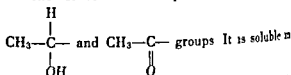
Biological importance of iodine Iodine is widely found in both plant and animal kingdoms. Because it occurs in most plants in only trace concentration it has not been possible to decide whether iodine is essential to plant nutrition. However, in many cases additions of iodine do stimulate plant growth.

Iodine is essential to higher animals because of its relation to the thyroid gland. Iodine absorbed by the body is converted in the thyroid first to 3,5-diiodotyrosine and then to thyroxine, both of which are iodine-containing amino acids. Both compounds are secreted and transported to the tissues. See BROMINE CHLORINE FLUORINE IODATE IODIDE IODOFORM PERIODATE [M.F.O. N.A.C.]

Bibliography R. E. Kirk and D. E. Oth (eds.) *Encyclopedia of Chemical Technology* vol. 7, 1951; J. W. Mellor *Comprehensive Treatise of Inorganic and Theoretical Chemistry* suppl. 2, pt. 1, 1956; N. V. Sidgwick *The Chemical Elements and Their Compounds* vol. 2, 1950.

Iodoform

A yellow hexagonal solid with a penetrating odor, also called triiodomethane CHI_3 . Its specific gravity is 4.08 and melting point 119 C. It is prepared by the action of iodine in a basic solution (NaOH) on ethanol or acetone or by the electrolysis of an alkaline I_2 KI solution in the presence of ethanol or acetone. It serves as a qualitative test for the



organic solvents and insoluble in water. It has weak bactericidal properties and exerts antiseptic action when applied to raw wounds because of the liberation of free iodine. Its chief use is in ointments for minor skin diseases. It is toxic when taken internally. See ANTIMICROBIAL AGENTS HALOGENATED HYDROCARBON [E.H.H.]

Ion

An atom or group of atoms which by loss or gain of one or more electrons has acquired an electric charge. If the ion is formed from an atom of hydrogen or an atom of a metal, it is usually positively charged; if the ion is formed from an atom of a nonmetal or from a group of atoms, it is usually negatively charged. The number of electronic charges carried by an ion is called its electrical valence. The charges are denoted by superscripts which give their sign and number; for example, a sodium ion which carries one positive charge is denoted by Na^+ , a sulfate ion which carries two negative charges by SO_4^{2-} . See ATOMIC STRUCTURE AND SPECTRA CHEMICAL BINDING

Salt are usually composed of orderly arrangements of ions which are not free to move as they are in the solid. However, when the salt is fused or dissolved in water, the ions become free and when an electric field is applied to the salt in solution, the positively charged cations move toward the cathode and the negatively charged anions move toward the anode. At the electrode the ions lose their electric charge. This process is called electrolysis. See ELECTROLYSIS IONIC CRYSTAL SALT (CHEMICAL) VALF CL [T.C.W.]

Energy converter The heated vapor of the system so far as the turbine generator is concerned is the working fluid. The contact between gas and liquid is made by means of a vertical separator. The turbine cycle and the Rankine cycle. The Baxton cycle appears to be a good one for small power plants (a few hundred to several thousand kilowatts).

hydrates phosphoric acid groups in nucleic acid weakly acidic phenolic $-\text{OH}$ groups and thiol $-\text{SH}$ groups in proteins. Proteins being amphoteric behave as anion exchangers in acid systems by virtue of amine $-\text{NH}_2$ side groups.

Since 1935 organic ion exchangers have been synthesized by incorporating functional groups in natural products such as coal, lignin and peat. An example of this type of organic exchanger is the product from sulfonation of soft coal. The sulfonic acid $-\text{SO}_3\text{H}$ functional groups are attached to the aromatic matrix of the coal. More recently cationic and anionic groups respectively have been incorporated in cellulose fabrics by phosphorylation with urea and phosphoric acid and by reaction with 2-aminoethylsulfuric acid to provide ion exchange properties.

The synthetic ion exchange resins were first prepared by the reaction of polyhydric phenols with formaldehyde. The weakly acidic phenolic groups providing cation exchange properties to the product. Cation exchange resins containing strongly acidic sulfonic acid groups were prepared later by the condensation of phenols and formaldehydes in the presence of sodium sulfite. Anion exchange resins were prepared by the polymerization of amines with formaldehyde.

The most recent technique for the production of ion exchange resins consists of first forming the polymer unit followed by incorporation of the functional ionic group. For example, the polymerization of styrene produces linear polystyrene chains. The chains are held together (crosslinked) by divinyl benzene to produce a network structure. The sulfuric acid groups are then attached to this network by sulfonating with concentrated sulfuric acid. Quaternary amines may be attached to the same matrix by an analogous treatment (chloromethylation of the copolymer followed by reaction with a tertiary amine).

These resins now by far the most popular are offered commercially with various bead sizes (mesh) and with different porosity or crosslinking (percentage of divinylbenzene). The degree of crosslinking controls their swelling properties. The low crosslinked resins swell to many times their dry volume in aqueous solution while the highly crosslinked resins show little volume change. In the highly crosslinked resin the more rigid network structure resists the swelling. Swelling is due to the concentrated salt solution contained in the resin gel phase. As a result of such concentration an exchange occurs more slowly because of increased resistance to the movement of hydrated counter ion in the resin gel phase. Difference in resin affinity between pairs of ions are also affected—increasing with increased crosslinking and thereby compensating for slowing the exchange process.

High porosity in an ion exchange resin results in easier accessibility to ion of high molecular weight thereby providing a basis for their effective separation from smaller ionic species.

The control of resin porosity possible in the method of manufacture permits the researcher to select the most suitable tool for his specific needs. In addition these resins are chemically and physically stable and possess high capacity.

The functional units most often employed in synthetic cation exchange resins are sulfonic, phenolic, carboxylic and phenolic groups. The sulfonic resins are strongly acidic as one would expect from their normal behavior in aqueous systems. The different exchange behavior of sodium ion with a carboxylic and sulfonic acid resin illustrates the acidity function. Sodium ion in a neutral solution of sodium chloride will not exchange appreciably with the hydrogen ion of a carboxylic resin in the acid form since the $-\text{CO}_2\text{H}$ groups are not appreciably dissociated. Only in an alkaline system can exchange occur readily between sodium ion and hydrogen ion. The continuous removal of hydrogen ion by hydroxyl ion to form water necessitates continuous replenishment of the small amounts of hydrogen ion normally replaced by sodium ion. In the case of the sulfonic acid cation exchanger the $-\text{SO}_3\text{H}$ groups are essentially completely dissociated and exchange between sodium ion and hydrogen ion can occur normally in neutral systems.

The functional groups for the synthetic anion exchange resins are usually amine. When primary, secondary and tertiary amine are incorporated the exchanger is weakly basic since the amines are strongly associated in aqueous system. If the functional group is a quaternary amine the exchanger behaves like a strong base.

The incorporation of other functional groups to produce unusually selective ion exchange resins has been attempted with some success. For example, thiol $-\text{SH}$ groups have been used to produce a resin which exhibits a special affinity for metals that form mercaptan. Incorporation of a chelate group *m*-phenylene diglycine produces a resin with a high selectivity for the transition elements.

The presence of immobilized functional groups and the neutralization of their charge by mobile ion of opposite polarity provide the resin with preponderance of mobile ions of one charge. For example, in the presence of moderately concentrated electrolyte solution, electrolyte diffusion (in a resin) into the resin gel phase does not alter this situation. As a result there is selective transfer of the mobile counter ion under the influence of an electrical potential gradient. Ion exchange membrane coherent sheets of ion exchange resin have been prepared to take advantage of this characteristic property. **SEMIPERMEABLE MEMBRANE**

A principal application of ion exchange membranes has been the electrolytic separation of electrolytes. The technique of separation is accomplished by arranging cation and anion exchange membranes in an alternating pattern between electrolyte compartments of a potential gradient. This will result in the concentration and dilution of electrolyte contained in the adjoining compartments.

le a d s t m Th e m a l p w e r t p u t f i l e
 c t o r m t t h e e f e b 4-16 t i m e l r g e t h a n
 t h e k w o t p u t . T h e n e g y d f e r e n e m t b
 r d e d t p a c F t l e g s c y c l e t h e a d a r
 a r e e q u r d i s a t l e a t 9-10 f t / e k w a t 1300
 1400 F r d t r n l e t t e m p r t e w h i l f o m e r
 e r y a n d s d m t h e a l e a r e 3-4 f t / e k w f o r
 1300-1400 F 1 f t / e k w f 2000 F a d o b f t / e k w
 f r 2300 F D e p e n d i n g t h e q u a r m e n t s f r
 r d i s t o d o n t m p t e (t l a b e 1000 F
 t t a n m 450-1000 F l m m b e l w 450 F)
 a n d m e o m t o r p r t e c t n t h a d a r w e i g h t
 w i l l a r y g r e a t l y A n a l n u m d o n w i t h t b
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 l b / f t t h e t b s b e n p r o t e d b y b u m p e
 (o t e h e l l) a g a i n t m i c r o m t r i t e p i a t n
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 0 l b f t w i t h m e t e r b u m p e r F t e l t h
 c o r e p n d n g a l s e a l l 15 l l f t f o t u b e
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 e l F r e y l a r e a d a t r o f 10 000-0
 000 f t a w e i g h t o f 4-5 l b f t i n c l u d n g l g t e r m
 m i r m t e r p o t c t n b y b u m p e r m t b e
 e p e c t d T h r a d t o r p e s t h h a t n d
 l t r t a m p e t f t h e p r p l o n y t m
 A l t e r n a t e p w e n e s o n s y t e m r e t h e m
 d t r a d t h e t h e r m o n c d o d S e m o d c
 t (t h r m p l e s) p r d d r c t o n e r n o f
 h a t c i f t r y (e T H E R M C O U P L) P n t

s y t e m h a s a n e f f i c i e n c y f 5-6% i m p o n g a
 g e a t b u r d e n o n t h e h e a t r e j e c t i n g r a d i a t o r I t i
 h o p e d w i t h f u t u r e h i g h t e m p r a t r t e r m c o u p l e
 t o r e a c h a n e f f i c i e n c y f 10 13% I t h r m i n i c
 d o d e l e t r o n a r e l e d f f a h t p l a t e a n d a r e
 n d e n e d i n a c o l d p l a t (s e e T H E R M E L E C T R I C
 r r y) C u m a j r i t r e d b e t w e e n t h e p l a t e i
 n u t r a l i z e p a c c h a r g e a n d t o a d j t t h e w o r k
 f u n c t i n s i l e l c t r d e T h r m i n i c t m f
 m t a i a l f o r h i g h t m p r a t r e p e r a t i n c a n b e
 d e v e l o p d c n a t t i n a c e p t a b l e f f i c i e n c y a t
 h i g h r a d i a t o r t e m p e r a t u r e (m a l l r a d i a t o r a r e a) a
 h w n i n F g 4 B e a o f t h c h a n i r i t e
 a n d b e a f i t e a l e n e o f l a r g e r a t a n g e e q u i p m e n t
 t h e t h e m i n i c n e r t e r t h e m o t a t t a c t
 i e c o e i n y t e m o f t h f u t u r e (F i g 5)
 P r o p e l l a n t T h i s i z e r i n u r c e c o n s i s t s
 t h e p r o p e l l a n t f o m n r i g n a l t o r e d f r m t a
 s y t e m o f c h a r g e d c p u l e T h e c e n t e r t h e r
 a t o m s e a c h d e p r d f n e l e t r o n (p u t i
 i n) r e m l l i q u i d d r p l e t o r l d p a r t i c l e t
 w h i c h n e g a t e c h a r g e (l e t n) a t t a c h e d T i
 c h a g e d h e a y p a r t i c l e t h t a r e f l e c t i v r
 f e r e d t a s l l i d r q r e h i g h e r v o l t a g e f r t h e
 s a m a e l e a t n o a t t h e s a m e a c e l r a t i g l t
 g y e l d l e e h t l i u y P r m n g m e t h
 d o f i o n z a t i o n t h e c e s i u m u r f a e n z a t n
 f p o l f o r n p o p i l n y t e m l y E S t u l
 l 1954 a n d t h n A d e n n g l m a t r n i

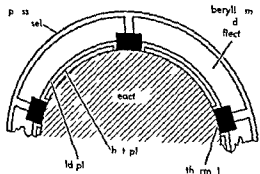


Fig 4 Eff c y f i c t l e c
 f c t f o p o l d d t o y f m s
 d h d l p i c t e d l

I t h e u r f e e o n z a t i n s y t e m e u m v a p o r i
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 i n z a t n p t e n t i l f e c u m (387 l t) l e s
 t h a n t h e o l t a g r q i e d t e m a e l c t r n
 f o m t h e g r d r f e (w t k f u c t n f t h e p l a t i
 n u m n t e n) T h i m p g e d m a t m e
 e p a t e t h a t e s i m v a p m p n g e o n t h e
 h o t g r d d r e p o r t i n g l y i z d f o r m
 h a n g l t e l t n f e h i T h l l n g
 t e m p e r a t u r e i m 1130 F T h g d t e m
 p a t r m u t h e p o p l y a d j u t e d I f i t i t o o l w
 n t e u h c e s i u m e a p a t s w i t h r i a n t f o r
 m t i o n o f a c a t w h i h r e d u s t h e i o n z a t n e f f i
 c o f t h g i d I f t h t e m p e r a t u r e i t o h i g h
 e l e t o n e a p f o m t h s f t g t h w i t h t h e
 i o r d i g t h e n u m b r o f n s e n t r g t h a

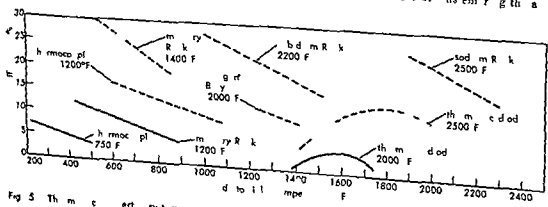


Fig 5 T h m c e r t s y t e m

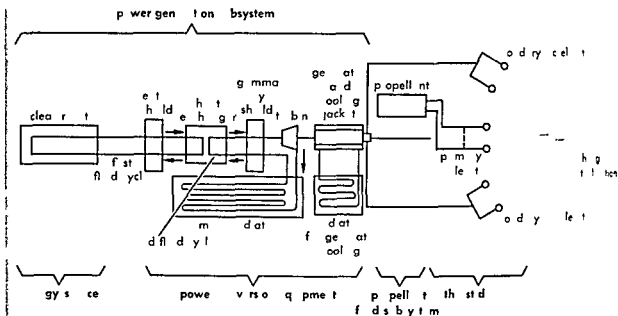


Fig 1 Schematic representation of nuclear power and electrostatic propulsion system

using a gas cycle the preferred fluid being argon a heavy inert gas. A typical Brayton gas cycle system is shown in Fig 2. Heat is transferred from the reactor to high pressure gas. The gas is then expanded in a turbine which drives a generator and compressor. Upon leaving the turbine the gas is cooled in a radiator then recompressed and fed back into the reactor (see BRAYTON CYCLE). In the Rankine cycle a liquid is used for heat transfer from the reactor leading to evaporation with subsequent expansion of the vapor in the turbine. The direct Rankine cycle (see RANKINE CYCLE). Because this would spread radioactivity the indirect Rankine cycle provides for a heat exchanger between a primary all-liquid cycle and a secondary liquid vapor cycle. Because of uncertainties in the boiling heat transfer rate under weightless conditions in space the intermediate link Rankine cycle of Fig 3 appears most attractive. The evaporation does not occur in the heat exchanger but in a boiler separator. The saturated liquid from the heat exchanger is expanded to high velocity in the boiler separator. A portion of the liquid evaporates. In subsequent spiral ducting liquid and vapor are separated by centrifugal effect. The vapor is ducted to the turbine and the liquid is returned to the heat exchanger together with liquid from the radiator in which the vapor is condensed and cooled following expansion in the turbine. Suitable working fluid are mercury for smaller power plant and sodium or rubidium for larger systems.

The radiator is the largest and heaviest component of the power generation system. Its purpose is to radiate excess heat into space. This heat is the result of limited efficiency of energy conversion. The efficiency of the conversion system defined as ratio of electrical power output (ekw) to thermal

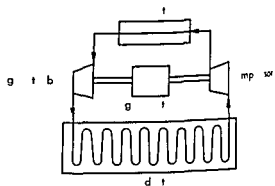


Fig 2 Power generation system using the Brayton gas cycle

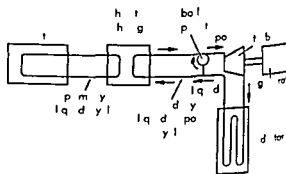


Fig 3 Power generation system using the indirect Rankine cycle

power output (kw) of the reactor is 6-7% for a 3-ekw system (mercury Rankine cycle) about 13% for systems in the 30-300 ekw range (mercury Rankine cycle or argon Brayton cycle) and 20-23% for 1000-20000 kw systems using rubidium sodium. Figure 4 shows a survey of the achieved and expected conversion efficiencies of various

ult. Fort nately the field of an i n beam ext acts le tron of ne by h t fil ments the eby k ep ng h v hicle ne tral and pr ding the electro s needed for pa e ch rge eut al zation The general arr ng me t of th lect o sou es and the o cil ating p th through the low den it i n beam under th combin d eff ct f th r wn th rmal elocly (wh h is compa ble t the elocly f the ons 100 000-300 000 ft / ec) and the attracting electr c field f th o beam ar shown i Fig 6

Low lo mass s hgh lltage nd sh rt accelers t n chamb rs a e requ ed for high current den ties. O the other hand for a g ven exhaust elocly (r specific imp l e) hgh thrust d nty requ res l r g ion mas s E pec ally f r lowe specifi imp uls e emph s on heavy i ns if a low thrust de sity i to b avo d d

The specifi impul e c nnot s mply be e lected to be a max mum but m st b optimiz d as a function of propul ion t m propul n y tem w ight, and effi e cy of co nrt ng ele tr cal powe into power of the exh ust j t. F r m i s on to the moon p c fi impul e of 3000-7000 sec are equ ed for m t Ve us or Ma s specifi impul es of 10 000-20 000 sec a needed Specifi imp l e be yo d 20 000 sec are f i t r e t nly for m i o s to the borde s of our ol r ystem See ELECTROMAG NETIC PROPULSION MAGNETOGAS DYNAMICS NL CLEAR AIRCRAFT PROPULSION e al o INTERPLA E TARY PROPULSION {K.A.E.}

Bb iog phy R H Boden Th Ion Rocket E g e Rock t dyn R pt R-645 1957 k. A Ehrick Ion P ulsio System or O bual Stabl zat of Sat llt e E p c lly of Set I S t llt Cl ly Smila O bus Co air A i on t R pt ASM 2, pt 1 19 7 H S Se ferr (ed) Sp e t ch l gy 1959 E St blnge D g and p f rma ce d ta f sp ce h ps with n c p pul n y tems P d g of th Eighth l t r n l Ast a t l C g 1958 E Stuhl g r a d R Setz. Some pr bl ms in n p pul n s tem IRE T ns Mul t a y Elect cs MIL-3 (2) 27 33 1959 M A den A w Det l p m s Appl d l d yule Physic At m En gy Rese r h Establ Tr 758 19 7

ionic crystals

A el f crytal wh h th l t t e t oc p nts a t r g d i n h l d t g th p ma ly by the l i t at ntr t Su h b d g s all ed ne b d g Fmp ll c tals d i g h d by t g ab pti n f i f r d t d ion g od n e e nd t i ty at h gh t mpe a t res f th x ten of pl e a l g wh h th y tal l a lly

Comp nd f t t nglv l tr po t i a d t glv l to g t e el ment t y p cally form sold wh h a y t l so ex mple th l k l h l d n r m i n z m tal h l des a d the lkal e e rth h d e xides nd ul fid Crv t l s wh h some of th n r com pl x h a m e f a bo ates m tal t r tes d

ammonium salt may al be cl ed as ionic crys tal

As a cryst l type i nic crytals are t be d i t ng u sh ed from ther types uch as molec l ar crytals alence crystal or metals The ideal ionic crytal a d e f n e d i app r o ch ed mo t clo ely by th alkali hal des Other cry t l s lten cla sed as i n c h a e b n d i g wh ch is n t ex clu sively i nic but includes a certa n admixture of cov lent b n d ng (see CHEMICAL BNDI G) Th s the term i nic crytal refer to an ideal zation to which real crys tal correspond to a greater or lea er degree and cry t l s e i s t h a n g characteristics of more than one crystal type

Because of the relative simplicity of ionic crys t l s especially the alkali halide the r thermal m chan e l opt c l and electric l properties ha e b n the subject of much experimental and theo retical n e s t g a t i o n

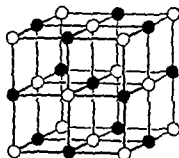


Fig 1 Sod m h l d latt Bl k d t p sent p t i v e s (A f f S i t h M d e Th e r y of S l d M G w H l l 1940)

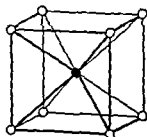


Fig 2 Ce um chl d l t t (A f f S i t h M d Th e r y f S l d M G w H l l 1940)

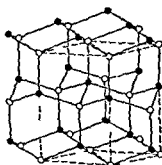


Fig 3 W r t z l t t (A f f S i t h M d Th e r y f S l d M G w H l l 1940)

celerating electric field in view of the fairly high boiling temperature, a high grid temperature (2800° F) is required to avoid undue power losses by radiation over long propulsion periods, a proper geometric arrangement of the grid elements is necessary. In the acceleration chamber the (positive) ions are accelerated toward the cathode (Fig. 6).

The von Ardenne plasma ion source uses electric discharge to produce a neutral plasma. A strong magnetic field is employed to generate high plasma density thereby increasing the degree of ionization (Fig. 7). In the charged collod system the fine droplets or dust particles which are produced first then must be ionized. The various possibilities of producing collodes and accomplishing the ionization efficiently are not yet fully explored. S. A. R. COLLOID is also known.

The space charge represents one of the major obstacles of any ion-propulsion system. By adding a singly charged beam repulsive force tends to diverge the beam. Therefore, a current density calls for fast beam acceleration, high voltage, in a short accelerator. The Ford-Dyn Division of North American Aviation reports a current density of ~ 20 A/cm² of cesium 6000-volt acceleration and an arc length varying from 3 mm to a fraction of 1 cm. Although space charge limits ion beams to a density in the order of 10^9 – 10^{10} ion/cm³, space charge effects require rapid neutralization of the beam after it has left the propulsion system. Continuous injection of ion charge would produce a high speed jet in the opposite direction with a high speed jet of the ions in the opposite direction.

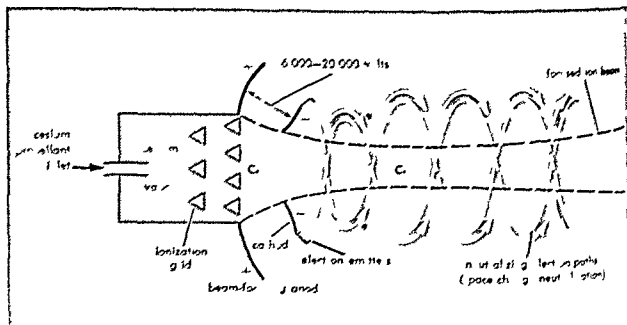


Fig. 6 Cesium ion thruster

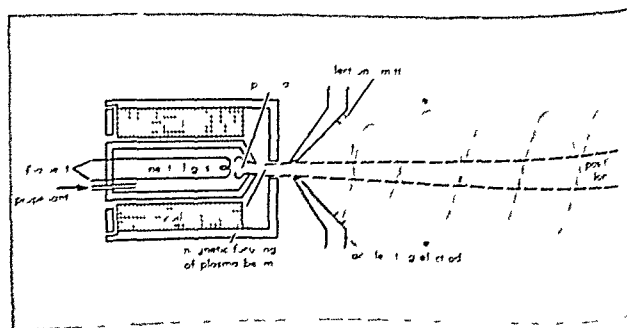


Fig. 7 Plasma ion thruster

cult F r u a t e l y t h e f i e l d f a n i o n b e a m t r a c t s
l e c t r o n s f n a r b y h t f i l a m e n t s t h e r e b y k e e p i n g
t h e h e l n e u t r a l a n d p r o d u c i n g t h e e l e c t r o n
n e e d e d f o r p a e c h a g e n u t a l i z a t i o n T h e g e n e r a l
a r r a n g e m e n t f i t h e l e c t r o n s u c a d d i r o i l
l i n g p t h r o u g h t h e l o w d e n s i t y o n b e a m u n d e r
t h e c o m b e d e f f e c t o f t h e r o w n t h e r m a l v l t y
(w h h i s i m p a r a b l t t h e e l c t y o f t h e i o n
1 0 0 0 0 0 - 3 0 0 0 0 0 f t / e c) a n d t h e a t t r a c t i n g e l e c t r i c
f i e l d o f t h e i o n b e a m a r e s h o w n i n F i g 6

L o w i n m a s s e s h i g h v o l t a g e a n d h o t c e l e r a t i o n
c h a m b e r s a r e r e q u i r e d f o r h i g h c u r r e n t d e n s i t i e s
O n t h e o t h e r h a n d f o r g e n e r a t i o n e l o c i t y
(o r s p e c i f i c i m p u l s e) h i g h t h r u t d e n s i t y r e q u i r e s
l a g e i n m a s s E s p e c i a l l y f o r l o w s p e c i f i c i m p u l s e s
i m p u l s e s e m p h a s i s i n h e a v y i o n s i f a l o w t h r u s t
d e n s i t y i s t o b e a i d e d

T h e s p e c i f i c i m p u l s e c a n n o t i m p l y b e e l e c t e d t o
a m a x i m u m b u t m u t h o p t i m i z e d a f u n c t i o n
o f p u l s e d u r a t i o n , p r e s e n t a n d s y m e t r y a n d
t h e v e l o c i t y o f i o n e r r u g e l e c t r o n a l p a s s a g e i n t o p w e r
o f t h e e x h a u s t j e t F o r m a s s e s t o t h e m o o s p e c i f i c
i m p u l s e s o f 3 0 0 0 - 7 0 0 0 e a r e r e q u i r e d f o r
i o n s t a r e n s o M a r s , s p e c i f i c i m p u l s e s o f
1 0 0 0 0 - 2 0 0 0 0 e c a r e n e e d e d S p e c i f i c i m p u l s e s b e y o n d
0 0 0 0 0 s e c a c e o f n t e e t n l y f r m s i n s t a b l e
b o r d e r s o f o u r s l a r s s t e m S e e E L E C T R O M A G N E T I C
P R O P U L S I O N M A G N E T O C A S D Y N A M I C S N U C L E A R
A I R C R A F T P R O P U L S I O N s [K A E]

B b l g r a p h y R H B o d n T h e I o R o c k e t
F i g u r e R o c k e t d y n e R e p t . R - 6 4 5 1 9 5 7 A A
E h r i c k e l P o p l S y t e m O b t a l S a b l e
t e l o f S e l l e t s F p e c a l l y o f S e r i s a l l e
C l s l y S m i l O b s C o n a t A s t n a u t c
R p t . A S M 2 p t 1 1 9 5 7 H S S e i f e r t (e d)
S p a c e T e c h n o l o g y 1 9 5 9 F S t u h l i n g D e n a n d
p e r f o r m a n c e d a t a f o r s p a s h i p w i t h i c p u l s e
s y s t e m P e c d g f t h e E g h t h l e n a
t a l a t e l c l c n g s 1 9 8 E S t u h l i n g r
a n d R S e t z S o m e p r o b l e m s i n p p l n
s y s t e m s I R E T n s M i l i t a r y E l e c t r o n i c s M I L - 3
() 2 3 3 1 9 5 9 M A d n e N w D e v l o p
m e n t n A p p l d l o d N l a P h y s i c A t m o s
P e e g y R e s h E t b l T r s 7 5 8 1 9 5 7

Ionic crystals

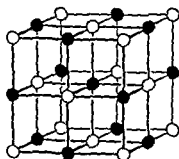
A l s o f y t a l s i n w h i c h t h e l i n e s t o u
p l a c e h a d o h e l d t g t h e r p m l y b y
t h e e l e c t r i c f i e l d s u c h b n d g
n e e d n b n d g E m p l l n r y t l
a d i g u h d b y t n g a h p t f n s a d
d t g o o d i d t y t h g h t m p r
t e s d t h i t e c f p l a l g w h h t h
y t a l l e l y

C o m p o s i t i o n o f t o p t i c a l a d
t o g l y e l e c t n g a s e l e m t t y p i c a l l y f r m
s o l d h h a e c y t l f e x m p l i t
a l k a l i d t h m o l t m e t l h i d e
a d t h a l k i e r t h h i d e s n d u l
f i d C r y s t l s w h h o m e f t h a r m
p l h m e t l b o a t m a l n t t d

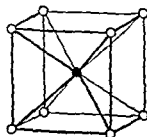
a m m o n i u m a l t s m a y a l o b e c l a s s i f i e d a s i o n i c c r y s t a l s

A s a c r y s t a l t y p e i n c r y s t a l s a r e t o b e d i s t i n g u i s h e d f r o m o t h e r t y p e s s u c h a s m o l e c u l a r c r y s t a l l e n e c r y s t a l o r m e t a l s T h e i d e a l i o n i c c r y s t a l a s d e f i n e d i s a p p r o a c h e d m o s t c l o s e l y b y t h e a l k a l i h a l d e s O t h e r c r y s t a l s o f t e n c l a s s e d a s i o n i c h a v e b i n d i n g w h i c h i n t e x c l u d e l y i n c b u t i n c l u d e s a c e r t a i n a d m i x t u r e o f c o v a l e n t b i n d i n g (s e e C H E M I C A L B I N D I N G) T h u s t h e t e r m i o n i c c r y s t a l r e f e r s t o a n i d e a l i z a t i o n t o w h i c h r e a l c r y s t a l s c o r r e s p o n d t o a g r e a t e r o r l e s s e r d e g r e e a n d c r y s t a l s e x i s t h a v i n g c h a r a c t e r i s t i c s o f m o r e t h a n o n e c r y s t a l t y p e

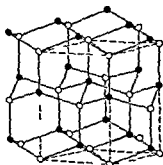
B e c a u s e o f t h e r e l a t i v e s i m p l i c i t y o f i o n i c c r y s t a l s e s p e c i a l l y t h e a l k a l i h a l d e s t h e i r t h e r m a l m e c h a n i c a l o p t i c a l a n d e l e c t r i c a l p r o p e r t i e s h a v e b e e n t h e s u b j e c t o f m u c h e x p e r i m e n t a l a n d t h e o r e t i c a l i n v e s t i g a t i o n



F i g 1 S o d i u m h a l i d e (N a C l) B l a c k d o t s r e p r e s e n t p o s i t i v e (N a) F S I T h M d T h y f S i d M G W H I I 1 9 4 0)



F i g 2 C a l c i u m f l u o r i d e (C a F 2) (A f t F S e t T h M d T h y f S o l d M G W H I I 1 9 4 0)



F i g 3 W u r t z i t e (Z n S) (A f t F S e t T h M d T h y f S i d M G W H I I 1 9 4 0)

celerating electrostatic field. In view of the fairly high boiling temperature, a high grid temperature (2200 F) is required. To avoid undue power losses by radiation over long propulsion periods, a proper geometric arrangement of the grid elements is necessary. In the acceleration chamber, the (positive) ions are accelerated toward the cathode (Fig. 6).

The von Ardenne plasma ion source uses electric discharge to produce a neutral plasma. A strong magnetic field is employed to generate high plasma density, thereby increasing the degree of ionization (Fig. 7). In the charged colloid system, the fine droplets or dust particles must be produced first, then must be ionized. The various possibilities of producing colloids and accomplishing the ionization effectively are not yet fully explored. See AEROSOL COLLOID; see also SMOKE.

The space charge represents one of the serious obstacles of any ion propulsion system. By producing a singly charged beam, repulsive Coulomb forces tend to diverge the beam. Therefore, high current density calls for fast beam acceleration to high voltage in a short accelerator. The Rocketdyne Division of North American Aviation has reported current densities of 3–20 ma/mm² at cesium 6000-volt acceleration and an acceleration length varying from 3 mm to a fraction of 1 in. Although space charge limits ion beams to a density in the order of 10^9 – 10^{10} ions/mm², space charge effects require rapid neutralization of the beam after it has left the propulsion system. Continuous ejection of one charge would gradually charge the vehicle in the opposite direction, making high speed ejection of the ions increasingly difficult.

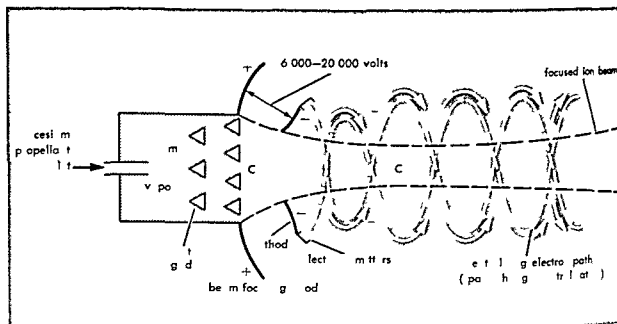


Fig. 6 Cesium thrust device

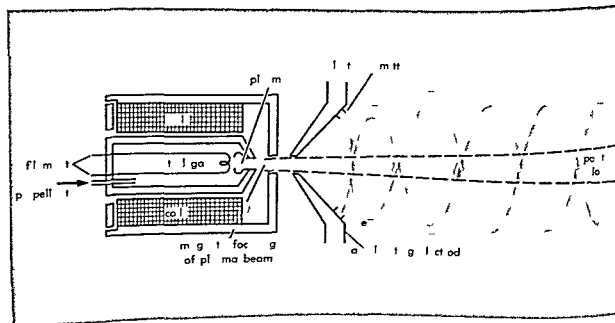


Fig. 7 Plasma ion thrust device

the following numerical values for the Born
 lattice energy (A) and the lattice energy (A) in
 the Born-Landé equation (A) indicate the
 state of the B with the brackets step
 (3) refer to the numerical values of B at the
 temperature and pressure. The 101 mpu d
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 dB the el tr neg t elem nt
 The temperature of the Born-Haber Cycle (11 tempera
 tures n k and p s res n two ph re)

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2 $[AB]_P^0 \rightarrow [AB]_{P-1}^{298}$ In ti step the crystal
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 p e f th rystal

3 $[AB]_P^0 \rightarrow [4]_{P-1}^{298} + B_{P-1}^{298}$ The v l e of
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 po d AB h ch e f r ed to s b t n e e n the
 n t r l f r m t and t emper tu e and p e s s u
 See THERMOCHEMISTRY

4 $B_{P-1}^{298} \rightarrow (B)_P^{298}$ The l e f ΔH the
 d t n n r g y c s y to f r m m n t o m c
 gas f m B is t l stat t standard tempe
 t nd p e s s r e F chlo des f e am pl th s
 s th d s at n n g y f Cl₂ mol ul to Cl
 t m

5 $[A]_P^{298} \rightarrow (A)_P^{298}$ I th s t p ΔH_1 s the
 h t f b l m t n of th metal A It n be d e c d
 f m th he t f f i the p e sific h t f th s l d,
 l g d nd gas phas s nd th p o p e s
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6 $(4)_P^{298} \rightarrow (A)_P^0$ $(B)_P^{298} \rightarrow (B)_{P-1}^0$ An
 d abatic pan n f th ga ns d e ad e s deal
 t r y l g l m res lts n a stat wh h
 $P=0$ $T=0$ and $\Delta H = -\frac{3}{2}RT/m$ le wh R
 th g tant

$(A)_P^0 \rightarrow (A)_P^0 + -$ The n izat n of the
 A at m g s ΔH p e t m p l t their first
 z al ry

8 $(B)_P^0 + \rightarrow (B-)^0$ Th l c t r n s f r m
 tep (") a p l e d the B t o m s Th alu of
 ΔH p e at m g n by the el t n aff n ty f th
 B i m (see ELECTRO EC TIVIT Y)

As ample fo sodium hlo d $\Delta H \cong 10^{-4}$
 (k local res/m l) $\Delta H = 2.4$ $\Delta H = 98.3$ $\Delta H =$
 6.0 $\Delta H = 8.8$ $\Delta H = -2.9$ $\Delta H = 11.9$ and
 $\Delta H = -80.5$ Exper m tal c hes r g e s for
 n m b e f th n r y t l a r g n i the
 m p a g t a b l See CHEM CAL STRUCTURES
 B May q t By e f the B r n Made
 l g m o d l the c h e g y f a n c r v t l
 n b e l i t e d t t m e d m p i b l i t y a d

Cohesive en rgies

| Cry t l | Stru t re | U | | |
|---------|-------------|------------------------------|-------------------------------|--|
| | | U _{exp} kcal/mol | U _{calc} kcal/m l | U _{calc} fi ed kcal/m l |
| LiCl | N Cl | 91 | 196.3 | 90 |
| LiB | N Cl | 191.5 | 181.4 | 189.5 |
| LiI | N Cl | 180.0 | 169.1 | 161 |
| N Cl | N Cl | 181.7 | 18.0 | 183.5 |
| N B | N Cl | 15.9 | 1 | 15.5 |
| N I | N Cl | 166.3 | 159.3 | 161.3 |
| KCl | N Cl | 16.8 | 265 | 167.9 |
| AB | N Cl | 161 | 158.3 | 161.3 |
| KI | N Cl | 15.8 | 148 | 15.4 |
| RbCl | N Cl | 163.6 | 191 | 16.0 |
| RbB | N Cl | 159.0 | 119 | 156.1 |
| RBI | N Cl | 149.7 | 143.1 | 148.0 |
| C F | F l o r i t | 618.0 | 617.7 | |
| C Cl | Z b l d | 6.3 | 06.1 | |
| Z S | W t r t | 8.1 | 816 | |
| PbO | R t l | 831 | 6.0 | |
| AgCl | N Cl | 97.3 | 187.3 | |

Th cohes gres th l t t w col m re cal
 cul ted us g th Bo M y eq t d th ref ed
 Bo M y theo y spect ly Th f d l i t
 f th l t f y t a l s m e d h t b e m d

lattice pa g B ca e of the opposite signs of
 elect c h r g which they carry the un l k n
 i s s ch a cry t l m del att act one an ther acc rd
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 l m b f e c t i addit t th r Coul mb
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 nd p l o

Th h r t a g e rep l on betw n n s m t b e
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 ch r g e d t b t n r e l t m p u l i between
 th i n a d d i t t h Coul mb i n t e t o n
 wh i ch they h a e at all t e r o n d i t n c e l
 a l y w o k th e g y V due to p u l o f
 two s t a d i t e r w s s u m d t h a e th
 f m

$$V_{rr} = B/r$$

wh e B nd n a e t a n t s to b e d t e m d
 Qu t m m h l l l a t i o s f th i n t e a c
 t o of at m with l d shell f l t nd
 ate that th t c t n f r p u l s n s b e t t e r
 p p m t d by an exp n e t l d e p e n d e n c e n
 nt c d t e

$$V_{rr} = A/r$$

wh A a d p a c s t n t s B th f r m f
 l g al m o t the am l l t e d h e i e e n
 g y th p t i l f m g s a l i g h t l y b t t
 g m t w i t h p m t

Crystal structure The simplest ionic crystal structures are those of the alkali halides. At standard temperature and pressure the 16 salts of Li, Na, K, and Rb with F, Cl, Br, and I have the sodium chloride structure of interpenetrating face centered cubic lattices (Fig 1). CaF_2 also has this structure but otherwise the cesium halides have the cesium chloride structure of interpenetrating simple cubic lattices (Fig 2). The sodium chloride structure is also assumed by the alkaline earth oxides, sulfides, and chlorides other than those of Be and by AgF , AgCl , and AgBr . Other crystal structures such as the wurtzite structure (Fig 3) assumed by BeO , $\beta\text{-ZnS}$, and ZnO and the zinc blende structure (Fig 4) assumed by CuCl , CuBr , CuI , BeS , and $\alpha\text{-ZnS}$ are also typical of the ionic crystals of salts in which the atoms have equal positive and negative valence. Ionic compounds consisting of monovalent with divalent elements crystallize typically in the fluorite structure (Fig 5) assumed by CaF_2 , BaF_2 , CdF_2 , Li_2S , Na_2S , Cu_2S , and Cu_2Se or the rutile structure (Fig 6) assumed by TiO_2 , ZnF_2 , and MgF_2 . See CRYSTAL STRUCTURE.

Cohesive energy It is possible to understand many of the properties of ionic crystals on the basis of a simple model originally proposed by M. Born and E. Madelung. In the simplest form of this model the lattice sites are occupied by spherically symmetric ions having charges corresponding to their normal chemical valence. The ions overlap only slightly; the ions at neighboring

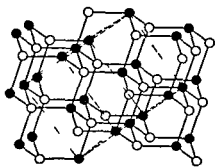


Fig 4 Zinc blende lattice (After F. Seitz, The Modern Theory of Solids, McGraw-Hill, 1940)

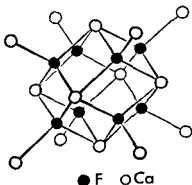


Fig 5 Calcium fluoride lattice (After F. Seitz, The Modern Theory of Solids, McGraw-Hill, 1940)

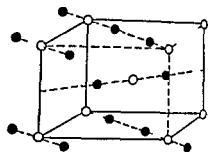


Fig 6 Rutile lattice (After F. Seitz, The Modern Theory of Solids, McGraw-Hill, 1940)

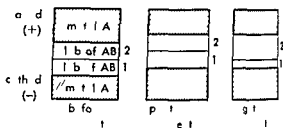


Fig 7 Ionic arrangement for magnesium oxide conductivity

ions interact with one another through central forces. In NaCl , for example, the spherically symmetric closed shell configuration which the free Na and Cl ions possess are considered to be negligibly altered by the crystalline environment and to have charges $+e$ and $-e$ respectively, where $-e$ is the charge on the electron. Using this model together with certain assumptions about the forces between the ions, Born and Madelung and Mayer calculated the cohesive energy of a number of ionic crystals. This cohesive energy is defined as the energy necessary to take an ionic crystal from an initial state in which the crystal is at 0 K and zero pressure to a final state which is an infinitely dilute gas of its constituent ions at 0 K and zero pressure. See COHESION (PHYSICS). While it cannot be measured directly, the cohesive energy can be deduced from experimental quantities by the use of the Born-Haber cycle. Thus the validity of the simple model of Born and Madelung can be tested by comparing the calculated cohesive energy of Born and Mayer with the experimentally determined values.

Born-Haber cycle This is a sequence of processes leading from the initial to the final state specified in the definition of the cohesive energy. Because in most of the processes in this cycle heat change at constant pressure are measured, it is convenient to consider the change in heat content or enthalpy $H = U + PV$, where P is the pressure, V is the volume, and U is the cohesive energy rather than the change in E in each step. Since the total change in H is independent of the intermediate steps taken to accomplish it, the ΔH for the change in state specified in the definition of cohesive energy will be given by the sum of the ΔH in the steps of the cycle. Furthermore, because when $P = 0$, $\Delta H = \Delta U$, the ΔH thus calculated will be the cohesive energy. In

Using the exponential form for the repulsive interaction energy the potential energy $\varphi(r_{ij})$ of a pair of ions i and j can be written

$$\varphi(r_{ij}) = \frac{Z_i Z_j e^2}{r_{ij}} + A e^{-U/r_{ij}}$$

where $Z_i e$ and $Z_j e$ are the net charges of the ions i and j and r_{ij} is the distance of separation of their centers. The assumption that the ions are spherically symmetric has been used here in writing the Coulomb interaction as that of point charges.

The cohesive energy U of an ionic crystal due to the Coulomb and repulsive interaction of its ions is the sum taken over all pairs of ions in the crystal

$$U = \frac{1}{2} \sum_i \varphi(r_i)$$

where in the summation the lattice site indices i and j range over all sites of the crystal. The prime on the summation sign indicates the exclusion from the sum of terms for which $i = j$ and the factor of $1/2$ avoids counting pairs of ions twice.

For crystals in which there are only two types of ion the Coulomb or electrostatic part of U can be written in a simple form

$$U = \frac{1}{2} \sum_i \frac{Z_i Z_j e^2}{r_{ij}} = - \frac{\lambda \alpha_M (Z_+ Z_-) e^2}{r}$$

where $+Z e$ and $-Z e$ are the charges of the positive and negative ions, N is the number of ion pairs in the crystal, r is the nearest neighbor cation separation and α_M is the Madelung constant. See **Madelung Constant**.

By anticipating that ρ will be small compared to the nearest neighbor separation the interactions of repulsion may be neglected for pairs of ions other than nearest neighbors. The energy of the crystal model for arbitrary nearest neighbor separation r is then

$$U(r) = N[-\alpha_M Z_+ Z_- e^2 / r + M A e^{-U/r}]$$

where M is the number of nearest neighbors which each ion has in the crystal.

The parameter ρ may be evaluated for a given crystal by requiring that (1) U be a minimum for the observed value of r and (2) that the compressibility of the model equal the measured compressibility of the crystal. It follows from the requirements that

$$U(r_0) = N \alpha_M Z_+ Z_- (1 - \rho/r_0) e^2 / r_0$$

This is the Born-Mayer equation for the cohesive energy where r refers to the nearest neighbor distance at static equilibrium. Further in this equation ρ is given in terms of experimental quantities by

$$\frac{r_0}{\rho} = \frac{18 r_0^4}{M^2 \lambda} + 2$$

where λ is the measured compressibility of the crystal.

Cohesive energies for some alkali halides and crystals of other structures calculated in this way are shown in the accompanying table where they can be compared with the experimental values for the cohesive energy. The agreement is considered to be support for the essential validity of the Born-Mayer model. The model has been applied with some success even to the ammonium halides assuming spherically symmetric ions.

The Born-Mayer theory has been refined with resulting improvement in the agreement between the calculated and experimental cohesive energies for alkali halides. The refinements have considered the small (a few kilocalories per mole or less) corrections to the cohesive energy arising from Van der Waals interactions and zero-point vibrational energy. The Van der Waals forces are weak attractive forces between ions due to mutually induced fluctuating dipoles. Similar forces are weaker due to dipole-quadrupole interactions but also been considered. Both the corrections make small positive contributions to the cohesive energy. At 0°K the lattice is not in static equilibrium but as a consequence of quantum mechanics is in a state of zero-point vibration with non-zero energy. The energy of the vibrational modes can not be further reduced. The zero-point vibrational energy gives a small negative contribution to the cohesive energy. The results of the refinements are also shown in the table. See **Lattice Vibrations**.

While it has had success in calculating the cohesive energy the shortcomings of the simple model become evident in its failure to predict correctly the elastic and shear constants of ionic crystals. This requires interionic forces of a noncentral character which are absent from the model. There are also other instances in which the simple model is found to be inadequate.

Ionic conductivity. Just below their melting point ionic crystals have conductivities of the order of 10^{-10} (ohm-cm). Below the melting point the conductivity falls rapidly with decreasing temperature. In a temperature range sufficiently near the melting point the temperature dependence of the conductivity σ is exponential and of the form $\sigma = c e^{-\phi/T}$ where c and ϕ are constants. In this so-called intrinsic range the conductivity is characteristic of the material and relatively unaffected by small concentrations of impurities and the previous thermal history of the crystal. At lower temperatures σ departs from the exponential behavior of the intrinsic region in a manner which does depend on impurities and history. For positive divalent impurities in alkali halides these departures have been extensively studied.

Ionic conductivity involves the transport of ions, as shown in experiments in which the deposit of metal from the ionic compound on the cathode is measured after the passing of current. Faraday's

Ionization

The process by which an electron is removed from an atom molecule or ion. This process is of basic importance to electrical conduction in gases and liquids. In the simplest case ionization may be thought of as a transition between an initial state consisting of a neutral atom and a final state consisting of a positive ion and a free electron. In more complicated cases a molecule may be converted to a heavy positive ion and a heavy negative ion which are separated.

Ionization may be accomplished by various means. For example a free electron may collide with a bound atomic electron. If sufficient energy can be exchanged the atomic electron may be liberated and both electrons separated from the residual positive ion. The incident particle could as well be a positive ion. In this case the reaction may be considerably more complicated but may again result in a free electron. Another case of considerable importance is the photoelectric effect. Here a photon interacts with a bound electron. If the photon has sufficient energy the electron may be removed from the atom. The photon is annihilated in the process. Other methods of ionization include thermal processes, chemical reactions, collisions of the second kind and collisions with neutral molecules or atoms. See ELECTRICAL CONDUCTION IN GASES, ELECTRODE POTENTIAL. [C. H. MI.]

Ionization chamber

An instrument used to determine the ionization produced by fast moving charged particles. Ionization chambers are a type of particle detector and may be used in cosmic ray research in nuclear physics or as radiation survey instruments which indicate the level of intensity of radiation at a point. See PARTICLE DETECTOR.

When a charged particle moves through a gas it may pass near enough to an atom in the gas to remove an electron from the atom by the process of electrical attraction or repulsion. This is called ionization of the gas atom. Left behind are the negatively charged electron and the atom, the latter with a net positive charge. The function of the ionization chamber is to measure the total amount of charge separated in this way by the passage of the charged particle.

Ionization chambers are constructed with two electrodes across which an electrical potential is placed. The negative charge produced in the gas moves toward the positive electrode and the positively charged ions move toward the negative electrode. The current of moving charges is measured to give the total ionization produced in the gas.

General types. Ionization chambers are of two general types: those used to detect radiations from radioactive substances placed directly in the chamber and those used for detection of higher energy particles originating outside the chamber, such as those from a particle accelerator. In the first case

gaseous α particles from naturally radioactive substances are usually detected by placing the substance in a parallel plate chamber directly on one of the plates. The pressure of the gas is adjusted so that the α particles are stopped before they reach the opposite plate. Such a counter gives information on the half life of the material or on the amount of active material present if the half life is known. An ionization chamber used to detect β rays (electrons) from radioactive substances must be much more sensitive than an α particle counter because the specific ionization produced is much smaller. Usually either a proportional counter or Geiger Muller counter is used to detect β rays (see GEIGER MULLER COUNTER). Ionization chambers have been used, however, to detect electrons and other singly charged fast moving particles from particle accelerators or cosmic rays. In this application the gas must be carefully purified and the amplifiers must be of high gain and well stabilized.

Electroscopes. The simplest ionization chamber is the gold leaf electroscope in which measurement of the angular deflection of two gold leaves in a gas filled container indicates the ionization produced in the gas (see ELECTROSCOPE). Ionization chambers based on this general idea are widely used as indicators of charged particle radiation. They are made in small sizes for convenience (they are often shaped like a fountain pen) and are carried by people who work near sources of radiation. See MONITORING (IONIZING RADIATION).

Current measurement. For accurate measurements of ionization it is necessary to measure the actual current produced. A pair of metal plates, mounted in a chamber that contains the gas in which the ionization is produced, is connected to a battery and current measuring meter as shown in Fig. 1. The ions produced in the gas are separated by the electric field and the current of ions is measured by the meter. The metal electrodes need

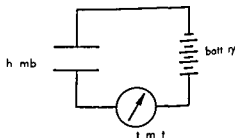


Fig. 1 Ionization chamber circuit

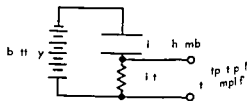


Fig. 2 Pulse ionization chamber circuit

The hot filament gage is most useful at pressures less than 1 micron (μ). Use is limited because the filament will burn out if the pressure rises much above 10 μ . Unwanted chemical reactions or adsorption may take place on the heated surface.

In the cold cathode (Philips) ionization gage a high voltage is applied between two electrodes. Fewer electrons are emitted but a strong magnetic field deflects the electron stream, increasing the length of the electron path and thus increasing the chance for ionizing collisions of electrons with gas molecules. This type is widely used for pressures of 0.01–10 μ .

In another type of ionization gage the gas is ionized by high energy alpha particles emitted by a radioactive source such as radium.

All ionization gages must be calibrated for the gas to be measured because different gases have different ionizing properties. Accuracy of 10% of full scale value is attainable. [B. D. H. C. P.]

Ionization potential

The potential difference through which a bound electron must be raised to free it from the atom or molecule to which it is attached. In particular the ionization potential is the difference in potential between the initial state in which the electron is bound and the final state in which it is at rest at infinity.

The concept of ionization potential is closely associated with the Bohr theory of the atom. Although the simple theory is applicable only to hydrogenlike atoms, the picture furnished by it conveys the idea quite well. In this theory the allowed energy levels for the electron are given by

$$E = -k/n^2 \quad n = 1, 2, 3$$

Here E is the energy of the state described by n . The constant k is about 13.6 electron volts for atomic hydrogen. The energy approaches zero as n becomes infinite. Thus zero energy is associated with the free electron. On the other hand, the most tightly bound state is given by setting n equal to unity. By the definition given above, the ionization potential for the most tightly bound or ground state is then 13.6 electron volts. The ionization potential for any excited state is obtained by evaluating E for the particular value of n associated with that state. For a further discussion of the energy levels of an atom, see ATOMIC STRUCTURE AND SPECTRA. ELECTRON VOLT.

The ionization potential for the removal of an electron from a neutral atom other than hydrogen is more correctly designated as the first ionization potential. The potential associated with the removal of a second electron from a singly ionized atom or molecule is then the second ionization potential and so on.

Ionization potentials may be measured in a number of ways. The most accurate measurement is obtained from spectroscopic methods. The transitions between energy states are accompanied by the

emission or absorption of radiation. The wavelength of this radiation is a measure of the energy difference. The particular transitions that have a common final energy state are called a series. The series limit represents the transition from the free electron state to the particular state common to the series. The energy associated with the series limit transition is the ionization energy.

Another method of measuring ionization potentials is by electron impact. Here the minimum energy needed for a free electron to ionize in a collision is determined. The accuracy of this type of measurement cannot approach that of the spectroscopic method. See CHEMICAL STRUCTURES. ELECTRON CONFIGURATION. ELECTRONEGATIVITY.

[C. H. M.]
Bibliography: J. Millman and S. Seely, *Electronics*, 2d ed., 1951; F. K. Richtmyer and E. H. Kennard, *Introduction to Modern Physics*, 5th ed., 1955.

Ionosphere

A succession of electrically charged (ionized) layers in the earth's atmosphere above the troposphere and stratosphere zones. In the tenuous outer fringes of the earth's atmosphere, incoming radiations from the sun ionize the gases present. The free electrons thus made available render the outermost portions of the earth's atmosphere electrically conducting. This part of the atmosphere is known as the ionosphere and extends from a height of about 60–80 kilometers (km) up to heights in excess of 1000 km.

Bases of the concept. The existence of the ionosphere was first suspected from studies of the small variations that occurred in the earth's magnetic field. These could be explained in terms of electric currents in an electrically conducting upper atmosphere. The existence of the ionosphere became much more certain, however, after Marconi had succeeded in transmitting radio waves across the Atlantic. Some means were required to explain how the radio waves managed to surmount the curvature of the earth. The possibility that an electrically conducting ionosphere could act as a mirror for radio waves was the most obvious explanation of Marconi's observations. During the 1920s experiments were made to detect the existence of the ionosphere by what would now be called radar techniques. In this way the existence of the ionosphere was independently established by E. V. Appleton and M. A. F. Barnett in England and by G. Breit and M. A. Tuve in the United States. In the early experiments, reflection of radio waves is obtained from what is known as the E region of the ionosphere at a height of about 100 km. Later experiments at higher radio frequencies showed that it is possible to penetrate the E region of the ionosphere and that reflection is then obtained from a higher region known as the F region at heights varying from 200 to 500 km. At still higher radio frequencies, even the F region is penetrated without

membrane will exceed the other by the concentration of the counter ions. Therefore the proportion of any electrical current crossing the membrane carried by the ions of the most numerous charge type may be very high and the electrical mass transfer of these ions in the direction of the oppositely charged electrode correspondingly high. Membranes whose fixed charges are negative and counter ions positive are under an electrical potential preferentially permeable to cations, those having positive fixed charges and negative counter ions are preferentially permeable to anions.

The electrical transport number of one charge type of ion in a membrane depends on the electrolyte concentration of the surrounding solution in equilibrium with the membrane. This is a necessary consequence of the Donnan membrane theory and leads to the important practical consequence that the selective ionic permeability of the membrane decreases as the external electrolyte concentration increases. At sufficiently high concentrations the membrane will have no electrolytic selectivity and will serve simply as a diffusion barrier. Membranes with the highest fixed charge concentration will be selective at the highest external concentration.

In addition to the electrical transport of ions across ion permeable membranes, electroosmotic transport of water or solvent also takes place with the net transport being in the direction of the counter ion movement. The amount of water transported per faraday will depend on the properties of the ions simultaneously transported and on their transport numbers in the membrane. Thus the net water transport is a maximum at low external solution concentrations.

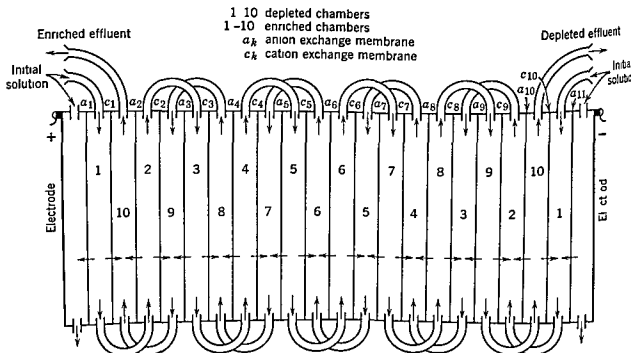
Measurement of transport numbers within the membranes can be made by direct measurement of ionic transport in electrolytic cells or by measurement of membrane potentials across a membrane separating solutions of known and different electrolyte concentration. The departure of the measured potential from the ideal Nernst potential is a measure of the transport number of the counter ions in the membrane.

Membranes The physical properties of ion permeable membranes vary considerably. Ideally they should be tough and flexible, readily hydrated, yet good diffusion barriers. Practical membranes for electrodialysis should have low resistivity and are usually less than 0.025 in. thick. For analytical measurement of ionic activities, low resistivity is not essential. The membranes may be of heterogeneous or homogeneous physical structure and may be internally supported by inert material.

The principle application of ion permeable membranes is to electrodialytic deionization using electrolytic cells having multiple compartments separated by the membranes, as shown in the illustration.

Membranes labeled a_1 are preferentially permeable to anions and those labeled c_1 are preferentially permeable to cations. Under an applied potential the ions in compartments 1, 2, ..., 10 will migrate through the ion permeable membranes toward the electrodes into compartments 1, 2, ..., 10.

Hence alternate compartments will be depleted and the others enriched as electrical current flows. The alternate compartments may be joined as shown, the current traversing the continuous streams n times, where n is the number of unit cells. A unit cell is defined as consisting of



Schematic diagram of multiple ion exchange membrane electrodialysis cell. Small horizontal rows indicate movement of ions between compartments.

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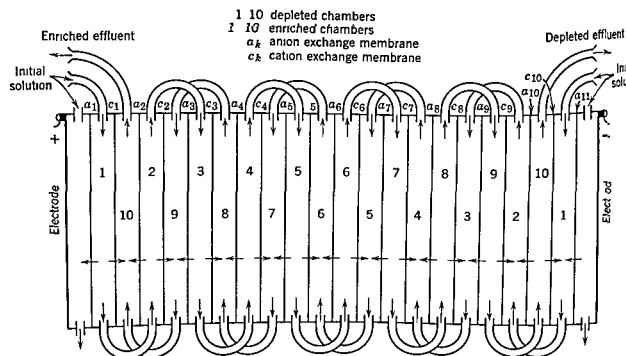
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Schematic diagram of multiple-chamber electrodialytic cell showing total water transport of ions between compartments.

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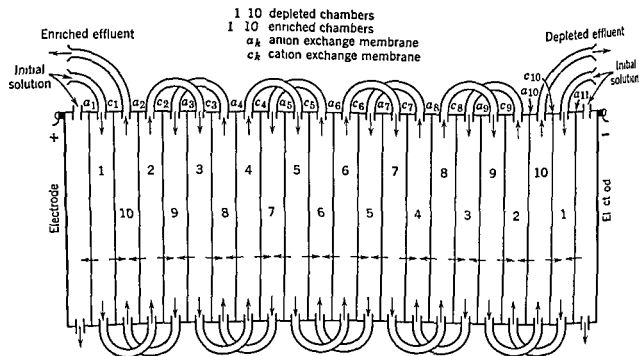
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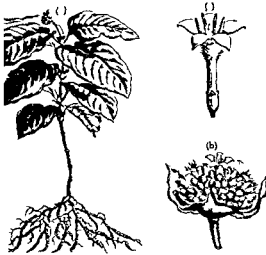
Schematic diagram of multiple compartment electrodialysis cell. Small horizontal arrows indicate movement of ions between compartments.

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cat n p r m e a b l m m b a n e The lectr de
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d 19 8 F C. N a h o d a d j S h u b e r t (d)
E x h a g e T e c h l g y 1956

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[F D S]

IR drop

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T h m p o r t t t h m s e f l t h
l y t s o l t i f l e c t r l t w k s.

[J W. S. T.]

Iridium

Chemical element number 77 iridium Ir in the
free state s a h a d w h i t e m e t a l l i c s u b s t a n c e

Uses At o d i n a r y t i m p e a t e s, i r i d i u m i s t h e
m o s t o r o n e c o n s t a n t e l e m e n t k n o w n I t i s u s e d
f o r e r y h i g h t e m p e r a t u r e c r u b l e s p e t i g i n
n o x i d i z i n g a t m o s p h e r e f o r f u n a e w i n d i n g s,
a d a n a n a l l y n g e l e m e n t t o t e g t h e n p l t i n m
Chemical and physical properties The atomic
n m b e f r i d i u m 77 a t o m i c w e i g h t 192.2, d n
t y 22.54 g/cm m e l t i n g p t 2443 C, b o i l i n g
p o n t 5300 C, a n d l e c t c l r i s t t y 5.3
m i r h m p e c n t m e t e r t 0 C. R a d o c t e c o
t p e f i t h f l l w i n g m s s n m b a e k n w n
187 188 189 190 192, 194 195 196 197 and 198
The t a b l e o f i s o t o p e s o f i r d i u m h a v e t h e m s s n u m
b e 191 d 193 The n a t r l b u d c o f t h e e
r 38.5 a n d 61.5 p e c t l y I r i d i u m i n t
t t a k e d b y a y i d i l u d i g a q a e g a A 30 C
i r i d i u m p l t i n a l l o y p r a c t i c l y n o t a b l e i n
q u e f u i n w i t h a l k l i d i z i n g f l u e s
s e s s r y t o c o e r t i r i d i u m t o a s o l u b l e f o r m
D i s o l u t i o n o f i r d i u m m a y l o b e a c o m p l e d
b y f u g t w i t h s o d i a m h i l o d e w h i l t r e t i n g t h e
m l t w i t h h l i T h e t e m e r t s o f i r i d i u m
u m r i c h l i y s e a t e p r b l e m s t h e a n a l y s i s
a d r e f i n i n g i r i d i u m h i b t s a l c e t a t e s f l +
2+ 3+ 4+ a n d p b b l y 5+ d 6+ T h 3+
a d 4+ l e a r e t h e m t m m I r i d i u m
h a t r o g e n e d e n c y t o f r m c d n a t n e m
p d s

Metallurgical extraction O m d u m b i t a n e d
n t h e t i n f l p l t u m m s f u e d w i t h z i n c a n d
s u b j e c t l y d g t e d w i t h h y d r h l r i c a d t
n e r t t h e m t i l t o a f i p w d T h s p o w d e
s t h f e d w i t h a n l k l o x i d i z i n g f l u x w h c h
n e r t s t h d i a m t n a d s o l u b l f o r m T h
p o c e d e s e l y q u a n t i t s o t h a t t h n s o l u
b l e. d e m t b r e c y l e d V a r i s h y d r l y t
s e p r t i l b l t p a r a t e t h e i r i d i u m
f m t h r m t l O f t t h m l b i l i t y o f d m
i n l e d e d t p a r a t i t f r o m o t h r p e c i u s
m t a l T h r e l a t e l u b l i t y f a m m n u m
h l d a t w t m y l o b e d t f f e c t
s e p a r a t i o n. W h e n h e t e d t h o m p d d m
t i l l i d m S e p a r a t e n o t q u a n t i t
t h l g i b y c y c l g o f t a l i g s e q u i d

Principal compounds Iridium trichloride IrCl_3 is a green water insoluble compound made by treating iridium powder with chlorine at 500 C. Sodium iridium(IV) chloride $\text{Na}_2\text{IrCl}_6 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$ is a black water soluble crystalline solid made by heating a fused mixture of iridium and sodium chloride in chlorine and then dissolving the resulting melt in water. Sodium iridium(III) chloride $\text{Na}_3\text{IrCl}_6 \cdot 12\text{H}_2\text{O}$ is an olive green water soluble crystalline solid made by reducing a solution of sodium iridium(IV) chloride. Ammonium iridium(IV) chloride $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{IrCl}_6$ is a red black relatively insoluble crystalline solid made by adding ammonium chloride to a solution of sodium iridium(IV) chloride. Iridium trihydroxide $\text{Ir}(\text{OH})_3 \cdot x\text{H}_2\text{O}$ is a green black insoluble solid made by hydrolyzing a solution of iridium(III) chloride.

Analytical techniques The separation and determination of iridium is the most difficult procedure in the analyses for precious metals. For a discussion of sample preparation see SOLUBILIZING OF SAMPLES. The 4+ valence state may be titrated to the 3+ valence state by the use of hydroquinone or ascorbic acid as a reducing agent. Colorimetric methods using the color of iridium(IV) chloride are also used. Iridium can be precipitated as the sulfide, ignited to the oxide, reduced to the metal in hydrogen, and then weighed directly.

For a discussion of the natural occurrence, metallurgical extraction and alloys of iridium see PLATINUM see also OSMIUM RHODIUM [E. A. H.]

Iron

Chemical element number 26 iron Fe is the fourth most abundant element of the earth's crust (5%) It is a malleable tough silver gray magnetic metal It melts at 1540 C boils at 2800 C and has a

A hand-drawn periodic table of elements. The elements are arranged in rows and columns, with their chemical symbols and atomic numbers. The table includes elements from Hydrogen (H) to Oganesson (Og). The layout is as follows:

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|----------|----------|---------|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|----------|-----------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|----------|
| 1 H | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | 72 Hf | 73 Ta | 74 W | 75 Re | 76 Os | 77 Ir | 78 Pt | 79 Au | 80 Hg | 81 Tl | 82 Pb | 83 Bi | 84 Po | 85 At | 86 Rn | 87 Fr | 88 Ra | 89 Ac | 90 Th | 91 Pa | 92 U | 93 Np | 94 Pu | 95 Am | 96 Cm | 97 Bk | 98 Cf | 99 Es | 100 Fm | 101 Md | 102 No | 103 Lr | 104 Rf | 105 Db | 106 Sg | 107 Bh | 108 Hs | 109 Mt | 110 Ds | 111 Rg | 112 Cn | 113 Nh | 114 Fl | 115 Mc | 116 Lv | 117 Ts | 118 Og | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2 He | 3 Li | 4 Be | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | 20 Ca | 21 Sc | 22 Ti | 23 V | 24 Cr | 25 Mn | 26 Fe | 27 Co | 28 Ni | 29 Cu | 30 Zn | 31 Ga | 32 Ge | 33 As | 34 Se | 35 Br | 36 Kr | 37 Rb | 38 Sr | 39 Y | 40 Zr | 41 Nb | 42 Mo | 43 Tc | 44 Ru | 45 Rh | 46 Pd | 47 Ag | 48 Cd | 49 In | 50 Sn | 51 Sb | 52 Te | 53 I | 54 Xe | 55 Cs | 56 Ba | 57 La | 58 Ce | 59 Pr | 60 Nd | 61 Pm | 62 Sm | 63 Eu | 64 Gd | 65 Tb | 66 Dy | 67 Ho | 68 Er | 69 Tm | 70 Yb | 71 Lu | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 9 F | 10 Ne | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | 18 Ar | 19 K | 20 Ca | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | 36 Kr | 37 Rb | 38 Sr | 39 Y | 40 Zr | 41 Nb | 42 Mo | 43 Tc | 44 Ru | 45 Rh | 46 Pd | 47 Ag | 48 Cd | 49 In | 50 Sn | 51 Sb | 52 Te | 53 I | 54 Xe | 55 Cs | 56 Ba | 57 La | 58 Ce | 59 Pr | 60 Nd | 61 Pm | 62 Sm | 63 Eu | 64 Gd | 65 Tb | 66 Dy | 67 Ho | 68 Er | 69 Tm | 70 Yb | 71 Lu | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 17 Cl | 18 Ar | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | 36 Kr | 37 Rb | 38 Sr | 39 Y | 40 Zr | 41 Nb | 42 Mo | 43 Tc | 44 Ru | 45 Rh | 46 Pd | 47 Ag | 48 Cd | 49 In | 50 Sn | 51 Sb | 52 Te | 53 I | 54 Xe | 55 Cs | 56 Ba | 57 La | 58 Ce | 59 Pr | 60 Nd | 61 Pm | 62 Sm | 63 Eu | 64 Gd | 65 Tb | 66 Dy | 67 Ho | 68 Er | 69 Tm | 70 Yb | 71 Lu | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 35 Br | 36 Kr | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | 54 Xe | 55 Cs | 56 Ba | 57 La | 58 Ce | 59 Pr | 60 Nd | 61 Pm | 62 Sm | 63 Eu | 64 Gd | 65 Tb | 66 Dy | 67 Ho | 68 Er | 69 Tm | 70 Yb | 71 Lu | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 53 I | 54 Xe | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | 86 Rn | 87 Fr | 88 Ra | 89 Ac | 90 Th | 91 Pa | 92 U | 93 Np | 94 Pu | 95 Am | 96 Cm | 97 Bk | 98 Cf | 99 Es | 100 Fm | 101 Md | 102 No | 103 Lr | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 85 At | 86 Rn | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | 118 Og | 119 Uut | 120 Uub | 121 Uut | 122 Uub | 123 Uut | 124 Uub | 125 Uut | 126 Uub | 127 Uut | 128 Uub | 129 Uut | 130 Uub | 131 Uut | 132 Uub | 133 Uut | 134 Uub | 135 Uut | 136 Uub | 137 Uut | 138 Uub | 139 Uut | 140 Uub | 141 Uut | 142 Uub | 143 Uut | 144 Uub | 145 Uut | 146 Uub | 147 Uut | 148 Uub | 149 Uut | 150 Uub | 151 Uut | 152 Uub | 153 Uut | 154 Uub | 155 Uut | 156 Uub | 157 Uut | 158 Uub | 159 Uut | 160 Uub | 161 Uut | 162 Uub | 163 Uut | 164 Uub | 165 Uut | 166 Uub | 167 Uut | 168 Uub | 169 Uut | 170 Uub | 171 Uut | 172 Uub | 173 Uut | 174 Uub | 175 Uut | 176 Uub | 177 Uut | 178 Uub | 179 Uut | 180 Uub | 181 Uut | 182 Uub | 183 Uut | 184 Uub | 185 Uut | 186 Uub | 187 Uut | 188 Uub | 189 Uut | 190 Uub | 191 Uut | 192 Uub | 193 Uut | 194 Uub | 195 Uut | 196 Uub | 197 Uut | 198 Uub | 199 Uut | 200 Uub | 201 Uut | 202 Uub | 203 Uut | 204 Uub | 205 Uut | 206 Uub | 207 Uut | 208 Uub | 209 Uut | 210 Uub | 211 Uut | 212 Uub | 213 Uut | 214 Uub | 215 Uut | 216 Uub | 217 Uut | 218 Uub | 219 Uut | 220 U |

density of 7.86 g/cm³. The atomic weight is 55.85. Each atom has 26 electrons and the four stable naturally occurring isotopes have masses of 54, 56, 57, and 58. The two main ores are hematite (Fe₂O₃) and limonite (Fe₂O₃·3H₂O). Other ores are magnetite (Fe₃O₄), taconite (an iron silicate) and siderite (FeCO₃). Pyrites (FeS₂) and chromite (Fe(CrO₂)₂) are mined as ores for sulfur and chromium respectively. Iron is also found in many other minerals and it occurs in ground waters and in the red hemoglobin of blood.

The greatest use of iron is for structural steel. cast iron and wrought iron are made in quantity also Magnets dyes (inks blueprint paper rouge pigments) and abrasives (rouge) are among the other uses of iron and iron compound

The free metal is obtained in bulk by reduction of the ore by coke. Pure iron is difficult to obtain because other elements are held tenaciously a pure material may however be obtained by reduction of the oxide with hydrogen or by electrolysis. The chemistry of the zero oxidation state is chiefly that of the alloys addition of trace impurities (carbon, phosphorus silicon nickel manganese chromium, and cobalt) has a marked effect on the properties of the metal. See CAST IRON HEAT TREATMENT (METALS AND ALLOYS) IRON (EXTRACTION FROM ORE) IRON ALLOYS STAINLESS STEEL STEEL MANUFACTURE WROUGHT IRON

Properties of the metal There are several allotropic forms of iron. Ferrite or α iron is stable up to 760 C. The change to β iron involves primarily a loss of magnetic permeability because the lattice structure (body centered cubic) is changed. The allotrope called γ iron has the cubic close-packed arrangement of atoms and is stable from 910 to 1400 C. Little is known about δ iron except that it is stable above 1400 C and has a lattice similar to that of α iron.

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PERIODIC TABLE

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|
| 1 H | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | 7 N | 8 O | 9 F | 10 Ne | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2 He | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | 11 Na | 12 Mg | 13 Al | 14 Si | 15 P | 16 S | 17 Cl | 18 Ar | | | | | | | | | |
| 3 Li | 4 Be | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | 19 K | 20 Ca | 21 Sc | 22 Ti | 23 V | 24 Cr | 25 Mn | 26 Fe | 27 Co | 28 Ni | 29 Cu | 30 Zn | 31 Ga | 32 Ge | 33 As | 34 Se | 35 Br | 36 Kr |
| 37 Rb | 38 Sr | 39 Y | 40 Zr | 41 Nb | 42 Mo | 43 Tc | 44 Ru | 45 Rh | 46 Pd | 47 Ag | 48 Cd | 49 In | 50 Sn | 51 Sb | 52 Te | 53 I | 54 Xe | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 55 Cs | 56 Ba | 57 La | 58 Ce | 59 Pr | 60 Nd | 61 Pm | 62 Sm | 63 Eu | 64 Gd | 65 Tb | 66 Dy | 67 Ho | 68 Er | 69 Tm | 70 Yb | 71 Lu | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 72 Hf | 73 Ta | 74 W | 75 Re | 76 Os | 77 Ir | 78 Pt | 79 Au | 80 Hg | 81 Tl | 82 Pb | 83 Bi | 84 Po | 85 At | 86 Rn | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 87 Fr | 88 Ra | 89 Ac | 90 Th | 91 Pa | 92 U | 93 Np | 94 Pu | 95 Am | 96 Cm | 97 Bk | 98 Cf | 99 Es | 100 Fm | 101 Md | 102 No | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

mass number most stable known isotope

density of 7.86 g/cm³. The atomic weight is 55.85 each atom has 26 electrons and the four stable naturally occurring isotopes have masses of 54, 56, 57 and 58. The two main ores are hematite Fe₂O₃ and limonite Fe₂O₃·3H₂O. Other ores are magnetite Fe₃O₄, taconite (an iron silicate) and siderite FeCO₃. Pyrites FeS₂ and chromite Fe(CrO₂)₂ are mined as ores for sulfur and chromium respectively. Iron is also found in many other minerals and it occurs in ground waters and in the red hemoglobin of blood.

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The periodic table displays elements from Hydrogen (H, 1) to Oganesson (Og, 118). It includes the Lanthanide and Actinide series at the bottom. The table is color-coded by groups: noble gases (yellow), halogens (green), chalcogens (blue), transition metals (purple), and main group elements (orange).

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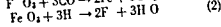
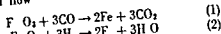
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 Iron is extracted from iron ore and concentrates by pyrometallurgical processes. At temperatures of 700–1100 °C, reactions such as hematite (Fe_2O_3) and magnetite (Fe_3O_4) the principal iron-bearing minerals are readily reduced to metallic iron as follows:



Magnetite is similarly reduced

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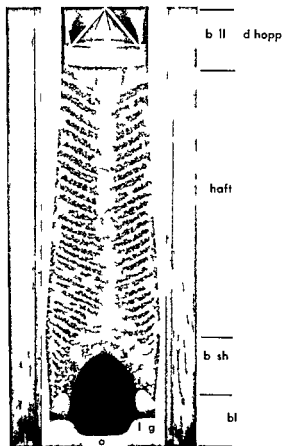


Fig 1 Arrangement of materials in furnace model

layers represent the relatively coarse coke and the white layers the charges of relatively fine ore. This layered arrangement is inherent in finer size of the ore its steeper angle of repose and the flow of material off the conical shaped bell when it is lowered to discharge the raw materials from the hopper shown at the top of the model. Liquid iron and slag collect in a bottom cylindrical section called the hearth. The lighter pear shaped areas near the top of the crucible correspond to combustion zones. Preheated air is forced into these combustion zones through water cooled copper castings called tuyeres.

An inverted frustum of a cone located immediately above the hearth is known as the bosh. The formation of molten pig iron and slag in the bosh permits a gradual reduction in cross sectional area at lower level. The upper part of the furnace called the shaft is conical except for short cylindrical section. Widening of the shaft at lower levels permits the charge to move downward without mechanical bridging as it expand upon heating. Additional cross sectional area at lower levels of the shaft also permit a lower descent of the charge and a longer residence time at temperatures where ore reduction and other metallurgical reactions occur. Similarly more area in the wider section of the furnace reduce the velocity of the ascending gas prolonging gas-liquid contact.

Structurally the furnace consists of a steel shell lined with fire brick to contain heat. The bosh and hearth are water cooled to maintain the refractory

lining. The trend is to use carbon lining in the hearth and bosh and to insert bronze cooling pipes in the lining of the lower part of the shaft. Modern furnaces are about 28 ft in diameter in the bosh and are about 31 ft across the widest section and taper to about 21 ft at the stockline. An overall height of about 95 ft provides a working volume of about 50 000 ft³. Such furnaces consume 1100-1500 tons of coke per day and produce 1300-2400 tons of pig iron per day depending upon the iron content of the ore used, the coke required per ton of iron and the physical character of the raw material. Ore of high iron content reduces the amount of coke and stone (fluxing materials) required per ton of pig. Replacement of coke and stone with ore increases the weight of iron per cubic foot of charge. An increase from 50 to 60% in the iron content of the ore will for example introduce about 30% more iron per cubic foot of overall charge.

Permeable charges permit larger volumes of gases to move through the stock column more uniformly without building up pressures which support the charge and prevent it from settling regularly. Under such conditions a larger volume of blast can be applied, more coke can be burned, the charge will settle more rapidly and more pig iron will be produced. In general beds composed of particles of uniform size will offer less resistance to the flow of gases.

The value of uniformity in the size of the coke has been fully appreciated for many years because coke occupies about 60% of the volume of the charge. Pieces smaller than $\frac{3}{4}$ in. are normally discarded for furnace use by screening the coke immediately before charging. Care is taken to blend the coals available to obtain a strong coke which will not fracture into small sizes upon handling prior to charging or in the furnace.

Size preparation of raw materials Since 1936, the large capital expenditures required to build new blast furnaces and the pressure due to inflation to increase the productivity of existing furnaces have stimulated a pronounced interest in the size preparation of iron ore and concentrate. The depletion of high grade deposits has necessitated the beneficiation of low grade deposits and the production of concentrates that must be agglomerated before they can be used in the blast furnace. During agglomeration, small sizes are converted to larger lumps by the application of heat which forms porous masses by grain growth and cause slag bonding without complete fusion. Although the use of agglomerated concentrates is increasing, large tonnages of direct shipping ore containing 57-60% Fe will be available for at least several decades. This ore can be used effectively in the blast furnace providing coarse sizes are crushed to about 2 in. and particles smaller than 2 in. are agglomerated by sintering. This procedure eliminates particles in a size range which offers high resistance to gas flow and also greatly reduces the amount of fine ore carried off a flue dust.

A recent development is to incorporate fluxes such as calcium oxide or magnesia into agglomerated material in the form of regularly shaped spheroidal pellets. Pellets are produced by hot gas ball making machinery and do not sinter. The production of self-fluxing agglomerates may lead to two-component charge

constituting of coke and self-fluxing agglomerates or three-component charges of coke, screened ore and self-fluxing agglomerates. In comparison with the increased efficiency used in the past these methods of charging of sized material will make it possible to burn about 30% more coke per day per furnace and to increase production accordingly.

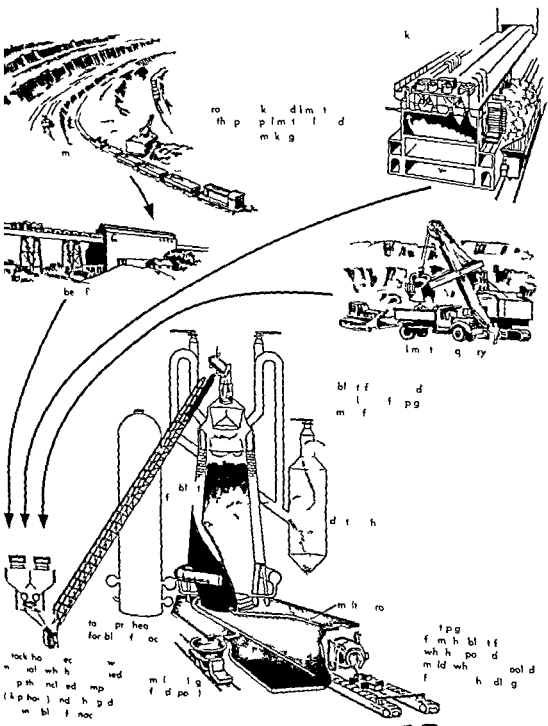


Fig 2 S p e c i a l b l a s t f u r n a c e p r o c e s s f i r e t e c t i o n (A m e r i c a n S t e e l I n s t i t u t e)

The use of oxygen enriched blast containing balanced additions of steam is another promising development which will permit more coke to be burned in furnaces of all sizes. This will be possible because less gas is made per pound of carbon gasified with oxygen enriched air and steam as shown in Eqs. (3) to (5). Coke burning rates may be increased well in excess of 30% by the use of oxygen enriched air and steam in conjunction with sized iron bearing materials. If the quantity of iron per cubic foot of stock is increased 30% by the use of richer ores and the high iron charges are then moved through the furnace 30% faster production will increase by 69% ($1.3 \times 1.3 = 1.69$).

Reactions in the furnace Heat and reducing gases are released near the base of the furnace by the combustion of coke. Because air contains about 79% nitrogen N_2 and 21% oxygen O_2 combustion in a deep full bed can be expressed as follows:



The products of combustion when using dry air consist of 34.7% carbon monoxide CO and 65.3% N_2 [$(5.76/20) \times 100 = 34.7\%$]. Two moles of coke carbon require 4.76 moles of air. If the air is enriched from 21 to 30% O_2 by the addition of manufactured oxygen the combustion reaction will be as follows:

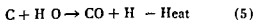


With this degree of oxygen enrichment only 3.33 moles of blast will be required to gasify 2 moles of carbon C and the products of combustion will consist of 46.2% CO and 53.8% nitrogen.

$$(2.0/4.33) \times 100 = 46.2\%$$

By the elimination of inert N_2 oxygen enriched air provides a means for burning C at faster rates for increasing the reducing power of the gas and for increasing flame temperatures.

Air normally contains some moisture which reacts with carbon as follows:



Recent experience has proved that when moisture is added and higher blast temperature are used to compensate for the heat absorbed by reaction (5) smoother furnace operation and higher productivity result. The hydrogen H_2 and CO produced by reaction (5) dilute the N_2 and increase the reducing power of the gas, permitting the ore to be properly reduced even though it descends more rapidly.

Oxygen enriched air has a similar effect. Substantially all of the heat for the process is either introduced in the blast which is heated to temperature of 550-950 $^{\circ}C$ or is released by the combustion of coke in localized zones before the tuyeres. Nitrogen, carbon monoxide and hydrogen which leave the combustion zone at temperatures of 1700-1900 $^{\circ}C$ carry heat to the overlying column

of stock. Gases leave the top of the furnace at 200 $^{\circ}C$. More permeable areas receive more gas and are thus heated to a higher temperature. Efficiency of heat transfer as well as efficiency of reduction and other smelting reactions depends upon the degree of uniformity of gas flow through the stack column. The recent trend toward the use of high percentages of sinter pellets and sized ore will increase efficiency and productivity and permit closer control over the composition of the metal.

Control of pig iron composition The carbon content of the iron is fairly well fixed at 4-4.40% because the iron is saturated with carbon. However, higher percentages of silicon tend to lower the solubility of carbon in iron. Because all the phosphorus and about 75% of the manganese in the charge are recovered in the pig iron, these elements are largely controlled through the selection of the ore. Silicon and sulfur are controlled by adjustments in the temperature in the crucible and by regulating the composition of the slag through the addition of varying amounts of lime. An increase in the temperature of the hearth will raise the silicon and lower the sulfur content of the iron. Hearth temperatures are regulated by the amount of fuel used by the temperature of the blast and by the addition of steam to the blast. Eq. (5). Variations in gas flow and in the transfer of heat from gases to solids result in uneven heating of the charge making it difficult to control the temperature of the hearth.

Direct processes Although direct processes have been subjected periodically to extensive study, research and investigation on a pilot plant scale since 1920 they have thus far failed to compete with the blast furnace in supplying an economical source of iron for steelmaking. However, the present outlook for such processes to succeed in more favorable localities is brighter than in the past. Imported ores and concentrates of low gangue content are now more readily available for producing a solid reduced iron that will not produce excessive amounts of slag in steelmaking furnaces. Techniques for reforming nonreducing hydrocarbon gases such as methane into CO and H_2 have been improved. Substantial progress has also been made in the development of fluidized bed techniques which permit the flow of reducing gases through beds of finely divided ore or concentrates in counterflow processes which are more efficient than traditionally older processes. The generally high prices of steel scrap since World War II have stimulated interest in direct processes as a means for producing a cheaper source of metallic iron for steelmaking. Current developments which show great promise in increasing the productivity of blast furnaces will have an important bearing upon the price of steel scrap and the future competitive position of steel scrap direct process iron and pig iron. See CAST IRON, COKE, IRON, IRON ALLOYS, MINING, OPEN CUT OR PIT, ORE DRILLS.

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Iron alloys

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p p r s t l l temperat es espec all t
100 F d s d h been sed f first tag
to b n blad g j t fte r es. The l coloy
gr p f col Incol T a d l coloy 901
h t m pl f a series l mod fied all

Magnet alloys Magneti all m be broadly
l fied u der tw he d g n retent e r m g
e lly soft d retent (permanen) r m g
e t c all h d s d t ed n T l l l
Th soft all bec me m gnetized a magnet
f l d b t l d m g e t ed wh n th f l d
crowned Th r g f m a t r o whi b th
p o n e t t h r o k l l y x wh h r e the
best l Jod th well kn w n lectri al f l
con t eel These soft all v f d w d e t appl

ion n modern communication and electrical
power equipment and a e the most important on
the ba i of qu ntity prod ced Th v are ordinari
u. e d n th wro ght e

The retent e o bard all v remain magnetized
after appl t n of s m gnetic field Alth ough pro-
duced in les r quantity thev e the old r f th
tw groups These allo are m pl ed wher a
con tant magn t field s requ ed and where t i
unpract al to estab l h an lectrom gnetic f l d.
Th are u ed in the wrou hit r ca t tate or re
pr p red by the ntern process whi s epe-
all u eful n makin mail ma n t Some of the
Alnico m be ther ca t or t ed

Some allo especially f the soft g r up a well
as ther m a n tic m t r i al po e certain fe-
tures th t make them pecul ar l ued f pec fic
applications f r e ample the perm ability f the
allo s co tainn about 30% nckel 70% iron.
uch s the Carp nte Temperature Compensator
30 varies li rly with temper t e They a e u ed
hant in electri al a d th n truments to
compensate f amb nt i mperature an t n
Other ll uch a P r m n a Conpern k and
I operm xhib t relatively con tant perm ab lity
dependent f field tre oth, and are wid l em-
pl ed n e m m u n i c a t i o n

Alth u h th soft all v s a e gen rally used a
col d metal they ar som times em pl ed in the
f hly divided condit n in co es in nd t aces in
t l p h and rad o-frequency rcnts whe e the
m m m re ed eut t losses The f r o m gnet
oxides are u ed fo mul purposes. Two impo-
tant dev l pm ts f recent ears are th ceramic
perm ent m m t r i l uch s Ferr m g l
and the pec ll process ed and h at t eated 3
s liron n r ex h b t n cub o tent ion, e e MAG-
NETIC MATERIALS M c E T I O N

Electrical resistance alloys These ll are
best known a th b sting el m nt in uch fami-
l r h uch l d t m a r d t i o n h t e r e electric
r nges and toa t The most comm n l used al-
l y f r th purpo the 80 70 n kel-chromium
type It has an cell nt combinati f electrical
and mech n cal p p r t i e s a d good res tance to
x d t n t t e m p e r a t u r e u p t 100 F

Th re re al o a number of r n-co t n n g al-
lo s l i t e d in Tabl 2, that f nd wide appli at n
in th f l d Th most popular of these contain
60% m k l 16% bromium, the bal nce iron
33% n k l 19% brom um th bal iron and
22% chr m um 5% al um inum l e b l t, the bal-
ance iron

For com ppli at n th l a t type upstox
t even the 80 70 nckel-chr mium all y l e
maximum ope t i g t e m p e r a t u r e (p p ximate)
400 F and n e t r i t are high and t l s
a l g s e r v e s l f Because f a tendency in
service to i ase length with t m (grow)
d a cel t i el low tre gh wh n h t, heatu el
ment made f th all require good mecha i al
upport.

The use of oxygen enriched blast containing balanced additions of steam is another promising development which will permit more coke to be burned in furnaces of all size. This will be possible because less gas is made per pound of carbon gasified with oxygen enriched air and steam as shown in Eqs (3) to (5). Coke burning rates may be increased well in excess of 30% by the use of oxygen enriched air and steam in conjunction with sized iron bearing materials. If the quantity of iron per cubic foot of stock is increased 30% by the use of richer ore and these high iron charges are then moved through the furnace 30% faster production will increase by 69% ($1.3 \times 1.3 = 1.69$).

Reactions in the furnace Heat and reducing gases are released near the base of the furnace by the combustion of coke. Because air contains about 79% nitrogen N_2 and 21% oxygen O_2 combustion in a deep full bed can be expressed as follows:



The products of combustion when using dry air consist of 34.7% carbon monoxide CO and 65.3% N_2 [$(5.76/2.0) \times 100 = 34.7\%$]. Two moles of coke carbon require 4.76 moles of air. If the air is enriched from 21 to 30% O_2 by the addition of manufactured oxygen the combustion reaction will be as follows:

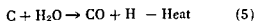


With this degree of oxygen enrichment only 3.33 moles of blast will be required to gasify 2 moles of carbon C and the products of combustion will consist of 46.2% CO and 53.8% nitrogen.

$$(2.0/4.33) \times 100 = 46.2\%$$

By the elimination of inert N_2 oxygen enriched air provides a means for burning C at faster rates for increasing the reducing power of the gas and for increasing flame temperatures.

Air normally contains some moisture which reacts with carbon as follows:



Recent experience has proved that when moisture is added and higher blast temperature are used to compensate for the heat absorbed by reaction (5) smoother furnace operation and higher productivity result. The hydrogen H_2 and CO produced by reaction (5) dilute the N_2 and increase the reducing power of the gas permitting the ore to be properly reduced even though it descends more rapidly. Oxygen enriched air has a similar effect.

Substantially all of the heat for the process is either introduced in the blast which is heated to temperatures of 550-950 C or is released by the combustion of coke in localized zones before the tuyeres. Nitrogen carbon monoxide and hydrogen which leave the combustion zones at temperatures of 1,000-1,900 C carry heat to the overlying column

of stock. Gases leave the top of the furnace at 150-200 C. More permeable areas receive more gas and are thus heated to a higher temperature. Efficiency of heat transfer as well as efficiency of reduction and other smelting reactions depends upon the degree of uniformity of gas flow through the blast column. The recent trend toward the use of higher percentages of sinter pellets and sized ore with the gradual elimination of all uncreened ore will increase efficiency and productivity and permit closer control over the composition of the metal.

Control of pig iron composition The carbon content of the iron is fairly well fixed at about 4.0% because the iron is saturated with carbon. However, higher percentages of silicon tend to lower the solubility of carbon in iron. Because all the phosphorus and about 75% of the manganese in the charge are recovered in the pig iron, these elements are largely controlled through the selection of the ore. Silicon and sulfur are controlled by adjustments in the temperature in the crucible and by regulating the composition of the slag through the addition of varying amounts of lime. An increase in the temperature of the hearth will raise the silicon and lower the sulfur content of the iron. Hearth temperatures are regulated by the amount of fuel used by the temperature of the blast, and by the addition of steam to the blast (Eq. 5). Variations in gas flow and in the transfer of heat from gases to solids result in uneven heating of the charge making it difficult to control the temperature of the hearth.

Direct processes Although direct processes have been subjected periodically to extensive study in research and investigation on a pilot plant basis since 1920, they have thus far failed to compete with the blast furnace in supplying an economical source of iron for steelmaking. However, the present outlook for such processes to succeed in new favorable localities is brighter than in the past. Imported ores and concentrates of low gangue content are now more readily available for producing solid reduced iron that will not produce excessive amounts of slag in steelmaking furnaces. Techniques for reforming nonreducing hydrocarbons such as methane into CO and H_2 have been improved. Substantial progress has also been made in the development of fluidized bed techniques which permit the flow of reducing gases through beds of finely divided ore or concentrates in counterflow processes which are more efficient than older processes. The generally high prices of steel scrap since World War II have stimulated interest in direct processes as a means of producing a cheaper source of metallic iron for steelmaking. Current developments which show great promise in increasing the productivity of blast furnaces will have an important bearing upon the price of steel scrap and the future competition of steel scrap direct process iron and pig iron. See CAST IRON, COKE, IRON, IRON ALLOYS, MINING, OPEN HEARTH, PIT, ORE DRESSING.

PYROMETALLURGY STEELMAUFACTURE WROUGHT
[T.L.J.]
190
Biology J W Fanklin Industry look
d ed ed t n Eng If i g J 158(12) 84-93
197 US Steel Corp Th Wok g Sh p n g a d
Treat g f St l th d 197

Iron alloys

All y f i o n o t a n g t h e l e m e t i a m u n t
y n g f o m a f w p e r c e n t t o p e h a y h i g h s
85% and diff n t i e d f m c a t i r o n a d t e e l b y
c m m o a c e p t n c e n t h n d t r y F o r p p o e
of c o e n e t h e y a n b g r o u p e d b y t h e c m
m e a l a p p l c t n t h f o l l o w i n g a t e g i e
m a g n t a l l y e l e t i a l r t a c a l l y s h a t e
t i g a l l y r o i o n e a t i n g l l o y a n d
t h r r l e x p a n n l l y s

The numb r f p h l y u f l a l l y s n d t h r
chem al g l t o s i e n t m s A t l a t 20000
o-called n e e r i n g a l l y a c l d n g b o t h f e r
t u a d n o t r o u h b e e n d b e d a n d n e w
e s a r b e n g a d d e d o t a n t l y T h s d e c n
h a b e e n i m u e d t m f t h e b e t t e r k n w n t y p e
f c h g p t h a r d e n t f i e d b y t a d e a m e s
l t g h t e i u l d b e b o r n n m i n d t h a t n m n y
i n t r e s l l o s o f t h e a m p m n n a a s l
b l f m d f t p d s d e r t h e a m e s
A n a l l y m a y b e a t t m e d e s c r b e d b y a n q u a l i
f i e d n a m d g l e o m p t a l t h u g h t i
r p r e t a t i e f a e r e t h m e m b r f w h o h
r n p a c t c m o e p f i a l l y d e n i e d b y t i
t n u m b r E h f t h e m b r s y m d f i
a u n f t h i g l e m p o s t n n d s d g e d
t o t s f y s m p r i u l a q e m n t F r e x a m
p l i n l i a k l e h m r r l l o y n t a n g
a p p x m t l y 77% n k l l c h m m a s d
7% T h i m d f i d t h f l o n l y
b y t h e d d t f m l i n t r l l d a m o t f
o f l m m A l t u t n i m T i n d o l m
b i m (n h u m) C h t m p t g t h d h a d
n d t o r n d u e p t i b l t g e h a r d a g

In t h a o f f l W t h e p r t a r m
p r b l t o t h o f l l y l t h u g h f m
t m h b n l u m n d s l l o o t h o t h e r
h a d t a n a b t 28% o b l t C o d 3%
m l y b d m M d i h d d w u t h l u m m
n d t a m l t e h i b t g o o d e p a d p t u
p r o p e r t a t l l t m p e a t u r e s e s p e c i a l l y a t
1600 F a d r d h s b e n e d f o f i t t g
t u b e f l a d g n j e t a f t g n T h l o l y
g r o u p l y l l y T a n d l e l y 90
t h r e p l e f r i m o d f i d l l y s

Magnetic alloys Magn t l l y m a y b e b r o d l y
f i d n d t w h a d g r t t r m g
e t a l l y o f t a d t n t (p m a n t) r m g
u a l l y h d d t d i d m T b l l

T h i t l l o y b e o m e m g n t e d i n a m g n t i
f i l d h a c e l y d m a g n e t i z e d w h e n t h f i l d
m o e d T h a g f m a t t n h h i t h
p o o e r t h t o k e l a l l y w h h t h e
b e t n d n e l d t h w e l l k o w l t l (i l
t l T h e s o f t l l o y f i n d w i d t p p l a

t i n n m o d e r n c o m m i n a t i o n a n d e l e c t r a l
p o w e r e q u i p m e n t a n d a r e t h m t i m p o r t a n t n
t h e b a s f q u a n t i t y p r o d u c e d T h e y a r e r d i n a r l y
u e d i n t h e w r i g h t t e

T h r e t e n t i v e r h a r d a l l y s r m a g n e t i z e d
a f t e r a p p l c a t i o n f a m a g n e t i c f i l d A l t h u g h p r o d u c e d i n l e e r q u a n t i t y t h e y a r e t h e o l d e r f i t t e
t w g r u p T h a l l o y s a r e e m p l y e d w h e r a
c n t a t m a g n e t i c f i l d i s r q u i r e d a n d w h e r e i t
p r a c t i c a l t o e s t a b l i s h a n e l e c t m a g n e t i c f i e l d
T h e y a r e u e d i n t h e w r i g h t r e a t s t a t e o r a r e
p r e p a r e d b t h n t r i n g p r o c e s w h o h s e p e c i a l l y
u e f u l i n m a k i n g s m l l m a g n e t a S o m e o f t h e
A l n c s m a y b e t h r e a t r i e e d

S o m e a l l o y s e s p e c i a l l y o f t h e s f i t g r o u p a w l l
s o t h e m a g n e t c m a t e r i a l p o e s c e r t a i n l e a
t e s t h a t m a k e t h e m p e c u l i a r l y u e d f r p e c i f i c
a p p l c a t i o n F r x m p l t h e p r m a l l y f i t h
a l l o y c o t a i n i n g a b o u t 30% n i c k e l 0% c r n
s c h a s t h e C a r p e n t e r T e m p e r a t u r e C o m p e n s a t o r
30 v a r i e s l n e r i v w t h t e m p e r a t u r e T h y r u e d
a h n t i n e l e c t r i a l a n d t h e r i n t r u m n t s t o
c o m p e n s a t e f r a m b i e n t t e m p e r a t u r e a r a t n
O t h e r a l l o y s u c h a s P e r m a n e n t C o m p o s i t e
I p r m e h b i t a r e l a t i v e l y n o n t a n t p e r m a n e n t
i n d p e n d e n t f i e l d r e g i t h a n d a r e w i d e l y e m
p l y e d i n c o m m u n i c a t i o n u t

A l t h u g h t h i s a l l o y a r e g e n e r a l l y u e d a
s l d m e t a l s t h y a r m t i m e e m p l o y e d i n t h e
f i n e l y d i d e d c o n d u c t i o n c o r e i n d u s t r i e s i n
t e l e p h o n e a n d r a d i o f r e q u e n c y c i r c u i t w h e r t h y
m n i m e e d d y c e r r n t l e s T h e f e r m a g n e t i c
o r b e a e u e d f r m a l a r p u p o e s T w i m p r
t a t d e v e l o p m e n t s o f e c n t y e a r e t h e r e f r a m e
p r m t m a g n e t m e t a l t h s F e r r m a g l
a n d t h e s p e c i a l l y p o e e d a n d h e t r e t e d 3%
s l n i o n e h i b t i g c u b e c o r n t i n S M a g n e t i c
M A T E R I A L S M A C E T I S

Electrical resistance alloys These a l l y s a r e
b e s t k n o w n s t h e h a t t a g e l m e n t i s c h i t a m l
t h u e h l d u e m a s d t o n h e a t r e l e c t r i c
a n g e s a n d t a t e s T h e m o s t c o m m o n l y u e d a l
l o y f r t h p u p o e i s t h 80-20 n i c k e l - c h r o m i u m
t y p l t h s a n e c l l e n t m b n a t i n f e l e c t r i c a l
a n d m e c h a n a l p r o p e r t y a n d g d i t n e t o
o d t n t e m p e r a t u r e a t s u p t 2100 F

T h e r a l s o a n u m b e r f i o n c n t a i n g l
l y l e d n T a b l 2 t h a t f i n d w i d a p p l c a t i o n
n t h f i e l d T h e m t p o p u l a r f i t h e o t a m
60% n i c k l 16% h o m i n t h e b a l a c i o n
38% k l 19% h o m o m t h e b a l a n a n d
29% h r m u m 5% a l u m n u m 1% c b a l t t h b a l
a c c e i a

F o r m e a p p l a t i o n s t h e l a t t y p e p e r o r
t e e n t h e 80-20 n i c k l e h m u m a l l o y i s t h
m a x i m u m p e r a t i n g t e m p e r a t u r e (a p p r o x i m a t e l y
2450 F) d i s c e l t w t e h g l e a d t h a
i n g e r a c e l l B e c a u s e f t e n d n c y i
r i c t a e n l n g t h w t h t m (g r w)
n d a r t i e l y l w t n g t h w h e n h o t h a n g l e
m t m e d e o f t h a l l y q g o d m e h a a l
p p r t

Table 1 Magnetic alloys

| Name | Percentages | | | | | | | | Remarks |
|--------------------------------------|-------------|------|----|----|----|------|-----|--|--|
| | Fe | Ni | Co | Cu | Al | Ti | Si | Other | |
| Hard alloys | | | | | | | | | |
| Alnico I | Balance | 21 | 5 | | 12 | | | | Wide range of applications |
| Alnico II | Balance | 17 | 12 | 6 | 10 | | | | High BH product |
| Alnico III | Balance | 25 | | | 12 | | | | Can be cut and ground without chipping low cost |
| Alnico IV | Balance | 28 | 5 | | 12 | | | | High coercive force |
| Alnico V | Balance | 14 | 24 | 3 | 8 | | | | Oriented highest BH product of known alloys |
| Alnico VI | Balance | 15 | 24 | 3 | 8 | 1.25 | | | Oriented high coercive force & residual magnetism |
| Alnico XII | Balance | 18 | 35 | | 6 | 8 | | | Highest coercive force of any Alnico |
| Cunife | 20 | 20 | | 60 | | | | | High coercive force in thinable & ductile high cost |
| Indalloy | Balance | | 12 | | | | | 17 Mo | Sintered product |
| Vectolite | | | | | | | | 30 Fe ₂ O 44 FeO 26 CoO | Highest coercive force of any material except Alnico XII sintered material lightweight |
| Ferromag 1 | | | | | | | | BaO 6Fe ₂ O | Extremely high coercive force ceramic type lightweight |
| Soft alloys | | | | | | | | | |
| Puron | 99.95 | | | | | | | | Magnetic standard |
| High Si Iron | Balance | | | | | | 4.5 | | Power distribution audio transformers |
| Cubex | Balance | | | | | | 3 | | Cubic oriented |
| Low Si Iron | Balance | | | | | | 1.0 | | Intermittent duty motors relays |
| Hi pe sl | Balance | | | | | | 3 | | Transformer cores |
| Nicalloy | Balance | 47 | | | | | | | High permeability power transformers |
| Permalloy | Balance | 78.5 | | | | | | | Sensitive direct-current apparatus relays high permeability low hysteresis loss |
| 4 Mo Permalloy | Balance | 79 | | | | | | 4 Mo | High frequency electrical apparatus high permeability and resistivity |
| Hi perco 35 | Balance | | 35 | | | | | 1 Cr | Electric motors and generators high saturation |
| Permendur | Balance | | 50 | | | | | | Apparatus of rating at high flux density high permeability at high flux density |
| Vanadium Permendur | Balance | | 49 | | | | | V | Almost every high saturation and rugged to train |
| Permular | Balance | 45 | | | | | | | Magnetic transformers high and constant permeability |
| Isoperm | Balance | 40 | | | | | | | High constant permeability |
| Supermalloy | Balance | 79 | | | | | | 5 Mo | Constant transformers high permeability |
| Mu Metal | Balance | 74 | | | | | | 5 C | Special radio transformers in transformer high permeability |
| Carpenter Temperature Compensator 30 | Balance | 30 | | | | | | | Permeability decreases only with temperature but temperature coefficient is very low |
| Conpernik | | 50 | | | | | | | High constant permeability for electrical |

Table 2 Electrical resistance alloys

| Name | Percentages | | | | | | Remarks |
|------------|-------------|----|----|----|----|-----------|--|
| | Fe | C | Ni | Co | Al | Oth | |
| Alres | Balance | 1 | | | 5 | | Resistance 100 F |
| Albro | Balance | 16 | | | 5 | | Resistance 100 F |
| Aluminum O | Balance | 30 | | | | | Resistance 100 F |
| Blow | Balance | | 0 | | | | Self regulating temperature |
| Nelma A | Balance | 0 | 80 | | | | Resistance 100 F |
| Chromic C | Balance | 16 | 60 | | | | Resistance 1800 F |
| Chromel D | Balance | 19 | 3 | | | | Resistance 1100 F |
| Dmit | Balance | | 46 | | | | Copper plated cast iron alloy for heating in lead bath for light resistance and resistance |
| Feopyr | Balance | 7 | | | 7 | 1 Mn + 5 | Resistance 100 F |
| JB m G | 6 | 22 | 58 | | | 6 Cu 6 Ni | Resistance 100 F |
| K 11 A | Balance | 3 | | | 6 | | Resistance 100 F |
| South 10 | Balance | 38 | | | 8 | | Resistance 100 F |
| Thpt C | Balance | 1 | 61 | | | | Resistance 180 F |

A French alloy by the manufacturer contains 5% nickel and is used for resistance.

In the electrical and lecture field the alloy of the present series is the one which is indicated in Table 2. For example the 70% nickel alloy is used in thermometers and other applications requiring high temperature. It is not only a very stable alloy containing 60% nickel but also has a high resistance to oxidation at high temperatures. See RESISTANCE, ELECTRICAL RESISTANCE HEATING.

Heat resisting alloys. In the choice of alloys for high temperature service, the mechanical resistance is a factor which requires consideration. Not only in the normal use of the alloy but also in the temperature of the material at the time of its use. The mechanical properties of the alloy are of great importance in the design of the material. The mechanical properties of the alloy are of great importance in the design of the material. The mechanical properties of the alloy are of great importance in the design of the material.

For many years the high nickel chromium alloy has been known and employed in the chemical industry but the World War has increased demand for it with the high temperature service of the alloy in the design of the material. The mechanical properties of the alloy are of great importance in the design of the material. The mechanical properties of the alloy are of great importance in the design of the material. The mechanical properties of the alloy are of great importance in the design of the material.

at 1500 F and find that the principal properties of the blades holding fast in the design are the following properties.

The cobalt alloy with the design temperature up to about 2100 F. The excellent strength of the alloy in the design is the reason for the high temperature resistance of the material for the high temperature and nozzle vanes. Their high strength is however present in the form of the alloy in the design of the material.

The nickel alloy has excellent oxidation resistance up to 2000 F. The Inconel (Nickel in England) is a very advantageous alloy in the design of the material. The mechanical properties of the alloy are of great importance in the design of the material. The mechanical properties of the alloy are of great importance in the design of the material. The mechanical properties of the alloy are of great importance in the design of the material.

Corrosion resisting alloys. The mechanical properties of the alloy are of great importance in the design of the material. The mechanical properties of the alloy are of great importance in the design of the material. The mechanical properties of the alloy are of great importance in the design of the material. The mechanical properties of the alloy are of great importance in the design of the material. The mechanical properties of the alloy are of great importance in the design of the material.

Because of the many factors involved in the design of the material, the mechanical properties of the alloy are of great importance in the design of the material. The mechanical properties of the alloy are of great importance in the design of the material. The mechanical properties of the alloy are of great importance in the design of the material. The mechanical properties of the alloy are of great importance in the design of the material. The mechanical properties of the alloy are of great importance in the design of the material.

Duriron a cast silicon iron alloy (15% Si) is widely used in reaction kettles for handling acids and alkalis but it is quite unsatisfactory in resisting hydrochloric acid

Durichlor another cast silicon iron alloy of approximately the same silicon content and containing molybdenum may be used to resist this acid In like manner Hastelloy C which may be cast or wrought is noted for its excellent resistance to hot

and cold solutions of most highly corrosive mineral acids

Many of the corrosion resistant alloys are heat resistant and the borderline between the two groups is often not clearly demarcated See CORROSION

Thermal expansion alloys Table 5 lists a few important members of a group of iron containing alloys having unique thermal expansion properties.

Table 3 Heat resisting alloys

| Name | Percentages | | | | | Form in service | Upper limit of service typical applications |
|--------------------|-------------|----|---------|---------|--------------------------------|-----------------|--|
| | Fe | Cr | Ni | Co | Other | | |
| <i>Iron Base</i> | | | | | | | |
| A 286 | Balance | 15 | 26 | | 0.2 Al 1.15 Mo 2 Ti 0.05 V | W | 1300 F turbine blades and erburners |
| D scaloy | Balance | 14 | 26 | | 3 Mo 1.25 Ti 0.05 Al | W | 1350 F turbine wheels and disks bolts |
| Incoloy | Balance | 20 | 3 | | 0.5 Cu 1.5 Mn | W | 000 F resists sulfur attack and green rot |
| Multimet | Balance | 21 | 20 | 20 | 3 Mo 3.5 W 1 Cb + Ta 0.15 N | C | 1500 F turbine blades and combustion chambers |
| Refractaloy 26 | Balance | 18 | 37 | 19 | 3 Mo 3 Ti 0.3 max Al | W | 1450 F turbine blades and parts |
| <i>Cobalt Base</i> | | | | | | | |
| Haynes 21 | 2 max | 28 | 3 | Balance | 6 Mo 0.3 C | C | 2100 F turbosupercharger buckets |
| Haynes 25 | 2 max | 20 | 10 | Balance | 14 W 1.5 Mn 0.15 C | W | 1800 F turbine blades and erburner parts |
| S-816 | 4 | 20 | 20 | 38 min | 4 Mo 6 W 4 Cb | W C | 1500 F turbine blades |
| <i>Nickel Base</i> | | | | | | | |
| Hastelloy X | Balance | 22 | 45 | 15 | 9 Mo 0.6 W | W C | 2000 F jet engine tail pipes afterburner com- ponents turbine blades |
| Inconel | Balance | 15 | 74 | | 5 Cu | W C | 000 F exhaust manifold afterburners |
| Nimonic 90 | 5 max | 20 | Balance | | 1.25 Al 5 Ti | W | 1400 F turbine blades and erburners |
| René 41 | 5 max | 19 | Balance | 11 | 1.5 Al 10 Mo 3 Ti 0.01 B | W | 1800 F turbine blades afterburners |
| Ud met 500 | 4 max | 18 | Balance | 17 | 3 Al 4 Mo 3 Ti | W | 1750 F gas turbine com- ponents |
| Waspaloy | 1 | 19 | Balance | 14 | 3.5 Mo 2.5 Ti 1.2 Al | W | 1900 F turbine blades afterburners |

W wrought C cast

Table 4 Corrosion resisting alloys

| Name | Percentages | | | | | | Remarks |
|---------------|-------------|------|---------|------|----|---------------------|--|
| | Fe | Cr | Ni | S | Mo | Other | |
| Alloyco | Balance | 20 | 29 | 3 | 3 | 4 Cu | Acid and alkali resistant pumps valves |
| Durichlor | Balance | | 1 | 14.5 | 4 | | HCl resistant |
| Duriron | Balance | | | 14.5 | | | Acid (except HCl) and alkali resistant |
| Hastelloy B | 5 | 1 | Balance | 1 | 8 | 5 Co 1 Mn 0.4 V | Resists HCl and boiling H ₂ PO ₄ |
| Hastelloy C | 5 | 16.5 | Balance | 1 | 17 | 2.5 Co 1.5 W 0.1 V | Resists SO ₂ P ₂ O ₅ and Cl ₂ and H ₂ SO ₄ at high temp |
| Hastelloy D | | 1 | Balance | 9 | 1 | 1.5 Co 3 Cu 9.25 Si | Resists HCl and H ₂ SO ₄ |
| Illum G | Balance | 2 | 58 | | 6 | 6 Cu | Acid resistant (including H ₂ SO ₄) |
| Pioneer Metal | Balance | 2.5 | 3 | | 5 | | Acid resistant |
| Worthite | Balance | 20 | 24 | 3 | 3 | | Resists H ₂ SO ₄ and weak HCl |

Table 5 Thermal properties

| Name | Properties | | | | Coefficient of expansion | Remarks |
|-----------|------------|----|------|----|--------------------------|---------------------------|
| | Fe | C | Ni | Co | | |
| 1 | Balanced | 36 | 0.15 | C | Low | Buttler et al. tapes |
| Ku | Balanced | 37 | | | Some glass | Vacuum tapes |
| Nla | Balanced | 36 | | | Low | Butler et al. metal tapes |
| N-Span C | Balance | 55 | 4 | | 4T 0.6 Al | Conduct nodular |
| N-Span Lo | Balance | 5 | | | 4T 0.6 Al | Low |
| 5 | Balance | 9 | 39 | | 4T | High |
| N-Span-II | | | | | | |

The alloy of the Invar type contains about 36% nickel the balance is iron has an extremely low coefficient of thermal expansion. They are used as rods and taps for good work in making pendulum balances, clocks, watches and in delicate instruments. They are also employed where low expansion is required with high strength. They are also used in bimetallic thermometers and in the construction of thermocouples.

Of special interest is the N-Span series. In this group, nickel is added to the iron in varying amounts. N-Span Lo exhibits low coefficient of expansion. N-Span Hi is the strongest and the coefficient of thermal expansion is the lowest. The N-Span series is used for special applications in the construction of instruments, such as watches, thermocouples, etc.

The manufacture of this type of alloys is a difficult process. The iron is melted in a vacuum furnace and the nickel is added in the form of a metal powder. The alloy is then cast into the desired shape. The thermal expansion of these alloys is very low, and they are used in applications where dimensional stability is required. The N-Span series is used in the construction of instruments, such as watches, thermocouples, etc.

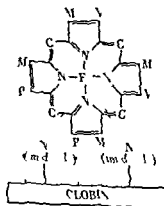
Iron metabolism

The metabolism of iron is discussed in the article with respect to its role in the synthesis of red blood cells and its absorption from the intestine.

Erythrocytes The red blood cells are about 40-50% of the total blood. The majority are erythrocytes, which contain hemoglobin. Hemoglobin is a protein complex consisting of a heme group and a globin protein. The heme group contains iron, which is essential for the transport of oxygen. The globin protein is made up of four polypeptide chains, two of which are alpha chains and two are beta chains. The alpha chains are encoded by the α gene and the beta chains by the β gene. The α and β genes are located on different chromosomes, and their expression is regulated by different factors.

transfers into the blood. The physical and chemical stimulation of the production of erythrocytes is a complex process. The synthesis of hemoglobin in the bone marrow is regulated by a number of factors, including the concentration of oxygen in the blood, the concentration of iron, and the presence of certain hormones. The erythrocytes are then released into the bloodstream, where they transport oxygen to the tissues. The life span of erythrocytes is about 120 days, after which they are removed from the circulation and replaced by new cells.

Hemoglobin is the respiratory protein of vertebrate erythrocytes. It is a conjugation of an iron



Hemoglobin synthesis

Hemoglobin synthesis (A. Whit, P. H. Dell, E. L. Smith, D. S. He, P. pl, f. B. h. m. s. t. r. y. M. G. W. Hill 1954)

porphyrin compound (heme) with a basic protein (globin). Four atoms of iron and four heme groups are present in the hemoglobin molecule.

The porphyrins are all derivatives of porphyrin a ring structure composed of four pyrrole groups linked by $-\text{CH}=\text{}$ (methene) bridges. The ferroporphyrin of hemoglobin contains methyl groups (M) in positions 1, 3, 5, and 8 (see figure); vinyl groups (V) in 2 and 4; and propionic acid groups (P) in 6 and 7. In each of the ferroporphyrin groups of hemoglobin, an iron atom is centrally located, bound to the four nitrogens and to imidazole groups of globin. Combination of hemoglobin with oxygen probably involves a displacement of one imidazole group in each ferroporphyrin moiety. Different hemoglobins among different vertebrates differ in the amino acid structure of the respective globins.

Synthesis of the protoporphyrin of hemoglobin requires only two precursors: glycine and acetate. The glycine supplies all of the nitrogen and eight of the 36 carbons. The utilization of acetate involves the intermediate formation of a succinyl derivative arising from the decarboxylation of α -keto glutaric acid, a component of the citric acid cycle with which the synthesis is closely linked. The mechanism for the incorporation of iron is probably an enzyme reaction. The essentiality of copper to iron utilization is well established.

Metabolic breakdown of hemoglobin released on disintegration of the erythrocytes involves oxidative cleavage of the porphyrin ring at a methene bridge to form linear pyrroles, the bile pigments. Very little of the iron of heme is excreted; most of it being used again in hemoglobin formation or being stored as ferritin. Biliverdin, a green pigment, is first formed and is the main pigment in the bile of some animals, but in the human, bilirubin (red) is the main pigment. The bile pigments are removed from the blood by the liver and are secreted into the intestinal tract in the bile where they undergo further chemical changes. Some of the intermediates in these reactions are reabsorbed and either returned to the liver or excreted in the urine to form its pigment urochrome. See BILIRUBIN.

Iron metabolism. Iron metabolism relates to iron liberated from functional combinations (for example, the heme proteins) in the tissues and that absorbed from the intestinal tract. The efficiency of iron absorption is not rated highly, however, it is impossible to measure it accurately because of the bilateral exchange of iron between blood and the intestinal lumen. Whatever its origin, iron is transported in combination with a plasma globulin (transferrin) in the ferric state to the liver, spleen, or bone marrow where it is released as ferrous iron to unite with a protein apoferritin in the presence of oxygen to form ferritin. Ferritin contains tightly bound micelles of a ferric hydroxide having the approximate composition $[\text{Fe}(\text{OOH})(\text{FeOPO}_3\text{H}_2)]$; its iron content is variable and may

reach values as high as 23%. The iron released from transferrin may be incorporated into protoporphyrin to form heme and into the prosthetic groups of various enzymes as an iron porphyrin complex. Hemosiderin, another storage form of iron combined with protein, is found in the tissues in increasing amounts as the tissue iron increases beyond the normal physiological levels.

The excretion of iron in the urine is normally inconsiderable. Its excretion from the skin is continuous and may be important in the daily iron economy of the body. Iron released from transferrin in the blood of the subcutaneous capillary bed combines with the proteins in the dermis and is carried slowly to the surface of the skin as the cells of the epidermis desquamate. The replacement of the epidermal layers in man is a slow process. See BLOOD; HEMOGLOBIN. [H H WL]

Bibliography. J. S. Fruton and S. Simmonds, *General Biochemistry*, 2d ed. 1958. National Research Council, *Conference on Hemoglobin*. NAS NRC Publ. 557, 1958.

Iron silicon alloy

A soft (easily magnetized) magnetic material. Iron-silicon alloys are used principally as the magnetic core materials in power transformers. The yearly product is valued in the hundreds of millions of dollars.

Although silicon contents up to 6% have been employed, the material most used now contains about 3% silicon. The highest quality is obtained by a combination of (1) purification especially with respect to nonmetallic impurities such as carbon, oxygen, and sulfur, and (2) control of the processes of rolling and annealing so that the crystallites composing the sheet are aligned with a favorable crystal axis parallel to the length of the sheet. For a list of properties, see MAGNETIC MATERIALS. [R M RO]

Ironwood

Any of at least ten kinds of tree in the United States which are commonly known as ironwood. Because of uncertainty as to just what tree indicated the name ironwood has been abandoned in the latest check list of the native and naturalized trees of the United States. Probably the best known of the ten is the hornbeam, *Carpinus caroliniana*. Some of the others are *Ostrya virginiana*, eastern hophornbeam; *Bumelia lycioides*, buckthorn hamelia; *B. tenax*, tough bumelia; *Cliftonia monophylla*, buckwheat tree; and *Cyrilla racemiflora*, swamp cyrilla or swamp ironwood. All of the species except *Ostrya* are restricted to the southern United States. Other commonly called ironwoods are *Eugenia* (only a red cherry eugenia of southern Florida and the Florida key), *Excoecaria paniculata*, butterbush of southern Florida, and *Ostrya knoultii*, knoulton hophornbeam of southern United States. Leadwood, *Argyrodendron ferreum*, a native of southern Florida has the highest

is limited either in total quantity or rate of delivery. The consumptive use of water by crops has been determined by soil moisture studies or computed by well established statistical methods for many parts of the country. Table 1 shows how this varies by months during the growing season. The data presented in this table are for various locations and for different years and cannot be applied specifically.

Plant-soil water relationships. Soil of root zone depth is a storage reservoir for water used to sustain plant growth. How often this reservoir must be refilled by irrigation is determined by the storage capacity of the soil, depth of the root zone and water used by the crop. Table 2 shows approximate amounts of water held by soils of various textures and available for plant use. See Table 2.

Table 2 Amount of water in soil available to plants

| Soil texture | Water capacity in /ft of soil |
|----------------|----------------------------------|
| Coarsely loamy | 16-18 |
| Sandy loam | 13-15 |
| Silt loam | 12-14 |
| Heavy clay | 10-12 |

Soil conditions position of water table and other factors exert strong influences on root zone depth. Table 3 shows approximate root zone depths in well drained uniform soil.

Table 3 Approximate root zone depths for various crops

| Crop | Root depth ft | Crop | Root depth ft |
|---------|---------------|---------|---------------|
| Alfalfa | 6-10 | Italian | 3 |
| Corn | 5-6 | Cassia | 1-2 |
| Cotton | 4-6 | Tree | 5-10 |

Quality of irrigation water. The quality of irrigation water is determined by total concentration of soluble mineral salts, sodium bicarbonate and such other substances as may be toxic to plants.

Growth of plants is affected by soluble salts since they restrict their ability to absorb water from the soil. When sodium salts are added by soil unfavorable condition develop which restrict the entrance of water into plant, prevent plant emergence from the soil and make cultural practices difficult.

Accumulated soluble salt can be removed from the soil by leaching with irrigation water which moves them below the crop root zone into drains. Adverse sodium conditions are alleviated by the use of gypsum, farmyard manure and leaching.

Methods of irrigation. Water is applied to crops by surface furrow, by sprinkling or by subirrigation method. Surface irrigation with furrows is a common means of applying water to row crops. The flow carried in furrow between the rows of plant percolates into and replenishes the soil reservoir. However, on slope water carried in furrow may result in soil erosion. The safe furrow

stream may be approximately computed by the formula $Q = 10/S$ in which Q is the flow in stream in gallons per minute and S is the slope of the furrow in percentage. Maximum length of furrow depends on the size of the furrow stream and the rate at which water is absorbed by the soil. Flow control to furrows is accomplished by riser tubes, spiles or gated surface pipe (Fig 1).

Corrugations are small closely spaced furrows used in the irrigation of close growing crops. They are often employed on soils which crust badly when flooded.

Flood irrigation is a method of surface application which may be carried out with border strips, basins and contour or bench borders or by flooding from contour ditches.

Border strip irrigation is accomplished by advancing a sheet of water down a long narrow area between low ridges or borders. The moisture enters the soil as the sheet advances. The strip between borders must be well leveled and the grade must be uniform to prevent ponding. The ridges are usually low and rounded so that crops can be grown and harvested on them. This method is well adapted to close growing crops and pasture but it is also used for row crops. Hay and grain can be irrigated on slopes up to 3% and well established pastures up to 6%. Slopes below 1% are liable to erosion damage and the uniformity of application is usually better than on steeper slope. Border strip irrigation when well designed and operated is economical of both labor and water.

Basin irrigation is adapted to flat lands. It is done by flooding a diked area to a predetermined depth and allowing water to enter the soil uniformly through the root zone. It is used for all types of crops including orchards. It is also economical of labor and water.

Contour or bench border irrigation is used on uniform gentle slopes with moderately deep soil. Border strips are placed across the slope on suitable grades. The width of each strip should remain



Fig 1 Irrigation of row crops (bets) by method of siphon to control water to each foot



Fig 2 f g t of w p by m f l g
p k l s. T p g phy to thi f l d t
p m t h e f u r l m t h d

th me th o g h u t l i n g t h d b m d n
m u l t p l o f t h e u a l w e r p m c h n r y T h e
t g t p r o c e t h a m e a f o b d t r p
r b a s n i r r i g t d e n d g n w l t h r t h t p
l p s l l

F l o d g f m n t d t h s i a m m o n i r r i
g a t n m t h o d f r e l e g w g r o p a n d p a t r e
f a d i t h u n t o p g p h y w h h a d f i u l t
t h p f t h r m a n f w t e a p p l i n
F e l d d i h r l l y s p c e d l n g t h e o n t u r
f t h l d W t r a d t r d t m t h m t f l o w
t h e n t r e i g t p a e a

S p n k l e r g a t n d n e b y m e a n s f p p e
f e t h t d t w t e f r m a p u m p g p l n t o
l a t e a l l e l g w h c e l i n g p k l e r h e d
a e s p e d t a p p a t e i n t e r v a l s L a t a l l i n e s
m o v e d f o m t m t i m a m i e r q r e
t f t h r p r m e t O e t y p f p n k l e r
s p r o a t d p p e a m e n o f w t e r p p l a
n p r t i u l l o c h r d (F g 2)
A d t g s o f s p k l r g a t n a e l e s
h e o f l r o e n n t e p s l o p s i f o r m
p p l a t n n m i s o l t y p n t r l f w a t e
m e e t c p d m a d s d g a t n w i t h t l n d
h a p g

S o m e d d a t a g e f p i k l i g h i g t l
t m e t n d h g h l a b r a d p r a t i g o t d s t
t n f p r n k l p t t r n b y w d n d w a t e f e l
e v a p a t u n t i h i d y c l m t e s i n s o m e e
n w s p k l e y t m d e i g a d b t r m t h d o f
m g p p h g r t l y e d e d l h o d p e r a t
g c o t

I r r i g a t o n i n a n d a n d h u m i d a r e a s T h e g e
f g r e d c p u l l c a g n b o t h n d
o d h m d r e g t a d e g n t h e l m i n g f

t o r i s f t e n l c k f w t e r n o t f l a l a t a t o b e
i r r i g a t e d f l o w e r i r r i g a t i o n p r g r a m m i n g i f
t e n e a i r w h n t h e f a r m e r d o e s n i d e p e n d o n
n t u r a l r a n f a l l f i r e r p g g o w t h C o o d y l l a r e
o b t n e d b y m a i n t a n g h i g h i f f t i l t y a n d
g o o d s o l t i l t h a n d b y u n g g d r p v r i e t e

T h e r e i s l i t t l e d i f f e r e n c e i n t h e p r i n c i p l e o f e r p
p r o d u c t o n u n d e r i r r i g a t o n i n h u m i d r e g i o n s a n d
i n a r i d o n e T h e p r o g r a m m i n g o f w a t e r a p p l i c a
t o n i n m r e d i f f i l t n h u m i d a s h w e r b e c a u s e
n a t u r l p r e c i p i t a t i o n e s n t b e p r e d t e d a c
c u r a t l y C l i m a t e n d i t i n u a l l y m k e t h
s p r n k l e r m e t h o d o f i r r i g a t i n m r e p r o f i t a b l e i n
r e g o n o f h i g h a r a g e a n n u a l r a i n f a l l S e A c r i
c u l t u r a l m a c h i n e r y A G R I C U L T U R A L O I L A N D
C R O P P R A C T I C E S P L A N T W A T E R R E L A T I O N S O F
T E R R A C I N G (A G R I C U L T U R A L)

[t d w]

B b l o g r a p h y O W I s a e l e n I r r i g a t o P r i n i
p l s a d P r e t c s 2 d e d 190 A S t f l r u d
(e d) F t r U S D A Y e a r b o o k A g r 1955

Isanomal temperatures

A t t m p e r t u r e s r t h r s u h a s s o i l o a t e m
p e t r e t h a t h w e q u a l d e p a r t u r e s f r m m
t a r d T h a t n d a r d u a l l y t h l n g t r m a
e a g e t e m p e a t r e f r a c h p l a e b u t m a y b e t h e
a g e f r a n e n t r e a e a r t h e a g f r t h
p l a c s l a t u d e

S e v e r i t y o f a u n o m t h e t w a e c a n b e h o w n
b y a m p o t m p e r t u r e a n o m a l e s — d i f f e r e n c e s f
t h a v e r a g e t e m p e a t r e s f a s i n g l e w e e k m n t h
r s e o n f r m t h e l o n g t r m a c r a g e s f r t h a t p e
r i d P l a e s w i t h t h m e d p a r t u r e s o a n m a l e s
a e j e d b y n m a l l i n e s

F r m l n g t e r m s a e g e s f m o n t h l y r e a s o n a l
t e m p a t r e t m a n y p l e s n t h e w r l d t h a e r
a g t e m p r t u r e f r e a c h l a t u d n a l b a n d c a n b e
c m p u t e d D i f f e r e n c e b t w n t h e s l a t u d n a l a v
e a g a n d t h o a t n d i d l p n t s c a n f m a
t m p r a t e r a m a l y m a p t o h o w t h e e f f e c t s f
o u n e t a l t y S A I R T E M P E R A T U R E C O N T I N E N
T A L I T Y W E A T H E R A N D C L I M A T E [A C]

Isentropic flow

T h e f l w f f l i d a s i n t r p i c w h e n i t e n t r p y
i d t i c l a t f l p o i t i n t h e f l w l e n t r p
f l w n b e a p p c h e d f r f l u i d f l o w i n g t h e r i n
d u c t r v t h e t i d e s s f a c e o f a b o d y B e
c a e t h e e n t r p y f t h e f l u i d i s a t h e r m o d y m i c
p r p e r t y m u l r t t h e n t h a l p y o r e n e r g y f a
f l d t h a l e f t h e t o p y i s f i x e d b y t h t e
f t h f l d F o r a p u e u b t i n e i n t h e b n c l
g r a t y p l l a t y l e t r c t y a n d m a g n e t i n
t p y s a f c t i n f t w o i n d e p n d n t p p t
f r e x m p l t h p r e s u e a n d t m p e a t u r e f r
n g l p h s f l u i d (T H E R M O D Y A M I C p r v e r
v e l e s)

O f t h e m p l e s t e x a m p l e s o f n t r p i c f l w
f a f d t h r g h a n o z z l e w h e r e t h e f l u i d
a c e l e r a t e d t o h i g h e r l o c i t y b y p r e r g a d
t T h f l w c l o l y p p r x m a t d h v t h

is limited either in total quantity or rate of delivery. The consumptive use of water by crops has been determined by soil moisture studies or computed by well established statistical methods for many parts of the country. Table 1 shows how this varies by months during the growing season. The data presented in this table are for various locations and for different years and cannot be applied specifically.

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Table 2 Amount of water in soil available to plants

| Soil texture | Water capacity /ft of soil |
|----------------|-------------------------------|
| Coarsely loamy | 1½-3 |
| Sandy loam | 1½-1¾ |
| Silt loam | 1½-3 |
| Heavy clay | 1-1.5 |

Soil conditions, position of water table and other factors exert strong influences on root zone depth. Table 3 shows approximate root zone depths in well drained uniform soil.

Table 3 Approximate root zone depths for various crops

| Crop | Root depth ft | Crop | Root depth ft |
|---------|---------------|-----------|---------------|
| Alfalfa | 6-10 | Potatoes | 3 |
| Corn | 5-6 | Cucumbers | 1 |
| Cotton | 4-6 | Trucks | 10 |

Quality of irrigation water. The quality of irrigation water is determined by total concentration of soluble mineral salts, sodium bicarbonate and such other substances as may be toxic to plants.

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Contour or bench border irrigation is used on uniform gentle slopes with moderately deep soils. Border strips are placed across the slope on suitable grades. The width of each strip should remain



Fig 1 Irrigation of row crop (beet) by method of siphon tube to control flow to each row.



Fig. 2. Length of water pipe by mass of water-gate sprinklers. Topography is too rough for this field experiment. The use of surface methods.

the sam th gh t t le gth and be made n
m l ples of the u l w-cr p tns hinery The
mrg u proe s i th ame a f border trip
b m mrga: n, d p d g on whether th t p
l pes t slev l

Flood g f m nt u d t hes s common rr
tion method f cl egr w g crop and pa t re
land with n topography wh h is dff li
t hap f oth m n f w te ppl cat
f ld d t hes e losely p ed lng th nt u
of the land. Wter d erted f om them t fl w
erth interve eng crop a a.

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tor is a ft n is k of water not f land are t be irrigated. H wever it is t n pr gramming a f ten e er wh n the farmer does n t depend n natural rai f ll for crop growth. Good y eld are obtai ed by m ntaining h gh s il fertility and good soil tilth nd by ng good cr p varieties.

There is little difference in the principles for production of irrigated crops in humid regions and in arid areas. The proper management of water application is more difficult in the humid areas, however, because natural precipitation is not to be predicted accurately. Climatic conditions usually make the proper method of irrigation more profitable in regions of high average annual rainfall. See AGRICULTURAL MACHINERY AGRICULTURAL OIL AND CROP PRACTICES PLANT WATER RELATIONS OF TERRACING (AGRICULTURE)

[10w]
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(ed) W t r USDA Y arbook Agr 1955

Isanomal temperatures

Air temperatures of other such soil or sea temperatures that have equal distribution from some standard temperature usually the long term average temperature for each place likely to be the average temperature area or the average for the place latitude

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Isentropic flow

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is limited either in total quantity or rate of delivery. The consumptive use of water by crops has been determined by soil moisture studies or computed by well established statistical methods for many parts of the country. Table 1 shows how this varies by months during the growing season. The data presented in this table are for various locations and for different years and cannot be applied specifically.

Plant-soil water relationships. Soil of root zone depth is a storage reservoir for water used to sustain plant growth. How often this reservoir must be refilled by irrigation is determined by the storage capacity of the soil depth of the root zone and water used by the crop. Table 2 shows approximate amounts of water held by soils of various textures and available for plant use. See Table 2.

Table 2 Amount of water in soil available to plants

| Soil texture | Water capacity in /ft depth |
|---------------------|-------------------------------|
| Coarsely sandy soil | $\frac{1}{4}$ |
| Sandy loam | $\frac{1}{3}$ - $\frac{1}{2}$ |
| Silt loam | $\frac{1}{2}$ - $\frac{3}{4}$ |
| Heavy clay | $\frac{3}{4}$ more |

Soil conditions position of water table and other factors exert strong influences on root zone depth. Table 3 shows approximate root zone depths in well drained uniform soil.

Table 3 Approximate root zone depths for various crops

| Crop | Root zone depth ft | Crop | Root zone depth ft |
|---------|--------------------|----------|--------------------|
| Alfalfa | 6-10 | Potatoes | -3 |
| Corn | 5-6 | Grapes | 1 |
| Cotton | 4-6 | Trees | 5-10 |

Quality of irrigation water. The quality of irrigation water is determined by total concentration of soluble mineral salts, sodium bicarbonate and such other substances as may be toxic to plants.

Growth of plants is affected by soluble salts in that they restrict their ability to absorb water from the soil. When sodium salts are added to the soil, unfavorable conditions develop which restrict the entrance of water into plants, prevent plant emergence from the soil and make cultural practices difficult.

Accumulated soluble salts can be removed from the soil by leaching with irrigation water, which moves them below the crop root zone or into drains. Adverse sodium conditions are alleviated by the use of gypsum, barnyard manure and leaching.

Methods of irrigation. Water is applied to crops by surface furrow, by sprinkling or by subirrigation methods. Surface irrigation with furrows is a common means of applying water to row crops. The flow carried in furrows between the rows of plants percolates into and replenishes the soil reservoir. However, on slopes water carried in furrows may result in soil erosion. The safe furrow

stream may be approximately computed by the formula $Q = 10/S$ in which Q is the safe furrow stream in gallons per minute and S is the slope of the furrow in percentage. Maximum length of furrow depends on the size of the furrow stream and the rate at which water is absorbed by the soil. Flow control to furrows is accomplished by siphon tubes, piles or gated surface pipe (Fig. 1).

Corrugations are small closely spaced furrows used in the irrigation of closely growing crops. They are often employed on soils which crust badly when flooded.

Flood irrigation is a method of surface application which may be carried out with border strips, basins and contour or bench borders or by flooding from contour ditches.

Border strip irrigation is accomplished by advancing a sheet of water down a long narrow area between low ridges or borders. The moisture enters the soil as the sheet advances. The strip between borders must be well leveled and the grade must be uniform to prevent ponding. The ridges are usually low and rounded so that crops can be grown and harvested on them. This method is well adapted to close growing crops and pasture but it is also used for row crops. Hay and grain can be irrigated on slopes up to 3% and well established pastures up to 6%. Slopes below 1% are liable to erosion damage and the uniformity of application is usually better than on steeper slopes. Border strip irrigation when well designed and operated is economical of both labor and water.

Basin irrigation is adapted to flat lands. It is done by flooding a diked area to a predetermined depth and allowing water to enter the soil uniformly through the root zone. It is used for all types of crops including orchards. It is also economical of labor and water.

Contour or bench border irrigation is used on uniform gentle slopes with moderately deep soil. Border strips are placed across the slope on suitable grades. The width of each strip should remain



Fig. 1 Regulation of row crop (beets) by means of siphon tubes to control the flow to each furrow.



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to 1 often lack of water in the land is a great
irrigation. However, irrigation programs of
the area when the farmer does not depend on
natural rainfall for crop growth. Good yields are
obtained by maintaining high soil fertility and
good soil tillage and by using good crop varieties.

There is little difference in the principle of crop production under irrigation in humid regions and in arid ones. The programming of water application is more difficult in humid areas. However, because of natural precipitation and the unpredictable climate conditions, it is usually more difficult to use the sprinkler method of irrigation more profitable in regions of high average annual rainfall. See AGRICULTURAL MACHINERY, AGRICULTURAL OIL AND CROP PRACTICES, IRRIGATION, WATER RELATIONS OF PLANTS, and TERRACING (AGRICULTURE).

[I D W]

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Isanomal temperatures

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TALITY WEATHER AND CLIMATE [A.C.]

[A.C.]

Isentropic flow

The flow fluid's entropic when it is trapped in the flow. I entropic flow can be appreciated for fluid flowing through a duct over the surface of a body. Because the entropy of the fluid thermodynamic property similar to the enthalpy, energy of a fluid the of the entropy fixed by the state of the fluid. For example, in the case of gravity capillary electrophoresis, the temperature is a function of two independent properties for example the pressure and temperature for a given phase fluid (see THERMODYNAMIC PRINCIPLES).

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assumptions that it is one dimensional adiabatic and frictionless (reversible)

In an actual nozzle the fluid flow is not completely isentropic because (1) the fluid shear stress at the walls is not zero thereby introducing some friction (2) a significant rate of heat transfer can occur between fluid and walls as in a rocket nozzle (3) a significant rate of mass transfer or diffusion may occur normal to the stream lines thus producing local changes of entropy in the real flow and (4) chemical reactions can occur in the flow and thus cause local change of entropy

Although the real flow in a nozzle is only approximated by an isentropic flow the latter flow can be computed quickly in comparison with the long and tedious calculations required for the real flow. Hence isentropic flow is often used as a basis of comparison of the real flow with the ideal flow. Thus the figure of merit for flow in a nozzle is defined by

$$\text{Nozzle efficiency} = V/V_i$$

where V is the actual measured velocity issuing from the nozzle and V_i is a hypothetical velocity for isentropic flow of the same fluid from the same initial state to the same exit pressure as the real flow

The concept of isentropic flow is applied fully to many applications for fluid flow inside ducts and outside of various shaped bodies. Isentropic flow is also used for predicting such flows as those of perfect gases, real gases dissociating and chemically reacting systems, liquid two phase single and multicomponent systems and plasma.

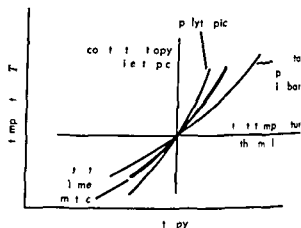
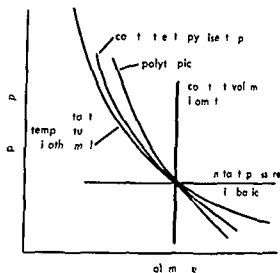
Isentropic fluid flow can be obtained in irreversible processes by selecting a process in which the local entropy could increase and then providing for sufficient heat transfer to maintain the entropy constant at all points. See FLUID FLOW PRINCIPLES, GAS DYNAMICS [JKA:51F]

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Isentropic process

A frictionless piston moving in an insulated cylinder may be used to depict this thermodynamic process. Systems which are thermally insulated from their surroundings undergo processes without benefit of any heat transfer and such processes are referred to as adiabatic. Because the isentropic process is conducted without any dissipative effect and because it receives no transferred heat, it is sometimes called the reversible adiabatic process.

Work done during an isentropic expansion is produced at the expense of the amount of internal energy stored in the nonflow or closed system. Thus the useful expansion of a gas is accompanied by a marked decrease in temperature, tangibly demonstrating the decrease of internal energy stored in the system. The path is indicated on the diagram. See THERMODYNAMIC PROCESSES



Isentropic process compared to other thermodynamic processes

For gases the isentropic process can be expressed as

$$P_1 V_1^k = P_2 V_2^k = \text{constant}$$

where P is pressure in pounds per square foot absolute, V is specific volume in cubic feet per pound, and k is the ratio between the specific heat at constant pressure and the specific heat at constant volume for the gas. It can be closely approximated by the values of 1.67 for monatomic gases and 1.40 for diatomic gases. [JB]

Isentropic surfaces

Surfaces along which the entropy and potential temperature of air are constant. Potential temperature in meteorological usage is defined by the relationship

$$\theta = T \left(\frac{1000}{P} \right)^{\frac{\gamma}{\gamma-1}}$$

in which T is the air temperature, P is atmospheric pressure expressed in millibars, γ is the specific heat of air at constant pressure and $\gamma-1$ is the specific heat at constant volume. Since the potential temperature of an air parcel does not change if the processes acting on it are adiabatic (no exchange

between the parcel and its environment) a
 function of constant potential temperature is also a
 surface of constant entropy. The slope of isentropic
 surfaces in the atmosphere is of the order of 10^{-4}
 (Lamb, 1944). The nature of repeating meteorological
 conditions on different optical surfaces is that
 there usually little air motion through such sur-
 faces, so that thermodynamic processes in the atmos-
 phere are approximately adiabatic. [F.S.]

Island faunas and floras

Developmental stages of ecological boundaries in con-
 tinental conditions, where the boundaries of an
 area inhabited by species can be established by
 approximate biotic faunas and floras of land
 generally have the character of their own because of
 the peculiar conditions under which they develop.
 The relationship to the species in island areas
 is of a different meaning than the continental.

Developmental conditions. Development of
 populations on islands in live conditions is
 characterized by isolation and disjunction, attenu-
 ation of the flora and fauna and continental effects
 on the islands.

Isolation and disjunction of the populations. A
 species may be distributed over all islands and
 continents. However it is usually selected a
 method of island populations based on unit without
 much contact with the rest of the species that is
 disjunction. The situation of such breeding popula-
 tions may lead to evolutionary changes resulting in
 subspecies or peculiar endemic taxa of the
 island.

Atoll islands. Islands and atolls are
 generally poor in plant and animal species. The
 composition of the atoll areas is peculiarly on oc-
 ceanic islands the flora and fauna have been selected
 by their ability to the ocean. Since relatively
 few terrestrial organisms can travel great distances
 overseas, all flora and faunas can be regarded
 as isolated by contact with the sea.

Continental islands. Continental islands
 have been connected to the continent in the
 geological past. The faunas and floras can be
 placed on the basis of migration and land
 bridges. The population of the island like
 the continental. The island swallows larger
 ones which the British Isles and New Guinea.
 However geological development supports the
 fact that Azores, Canary Islands, Micronesia, Hawaii,
 and the Philippines are in the middle of
 the Pacific as a result of the Pacific Ocean.
 Land masses of the Pacific Ocean are isolated
 from the continental population and sub-
 continental populations.

Endemism. On islands especially high
 islands with a variety of altitudinal zones
 support many peculiar or endemic taxa. The
 islands as of the continental islands do not
 have the same conditions to the islands as
 the continental. The Cretaceous of the
 Tertiary the flora and fauna have a more or less

character than if the islands were separated during
 the later Pleistocene. The character is expressed
 in the percentage of endemic species.

To determine endemism all species of animal
 plants on an island may be assigned to the fol-
 lowing groups:

1. Introduced species immigrant through human
 agency.
2. Native species immigrant through no human
 agency.
3. Widespread native species found elsewhere
 as well as on the island.
4. Endemic species peculiar to the island or
 island group not found elsewhere.

The percentage and distribution of endemism
 in the native flora and fauna are important factors
 in the degree of isolation of the island.

Geographic elements. Island populations
 whether distinct or not are usually related to species
 in nearby continents. Inular species which have
 relatives the same geographical region are added to be-
 long to the same geographic element. The flora of Hawaii com-
 posed of an Indo-Pacific, an Austral and an American
 biogeographical (North) tropical and Hawaiian and
 an introduced element.

In order to obtain information about the
 insular flora and fauna it is necessary to have
 knowledge of all islands and a sound knowledge of ocean
 currents and depth of the wind direction. Endemic
 migration routes should be given proper consideration.

Since endemic species and genera are isolated on
 islands for a long time the isolation of the island
 by the continents may have taken place under en-
 tirely different circumstances from those of today. Is-
 land may have changed in size, climate, and sea level
 in connection with the wind direction and currents
 of the sea and animal life. The neighboring conti-
 nents may have been different. The more dis-
 tinct the insular population the more likely it is
 to be immigrant, crossed by land and under differ-
 ent circumstances. The most recent invasions on
 most islands are of the dog, man, and many weedy
 plants.

The relic nature of island populations. Islands
 and island groups are endemism. The evolution of
 endemic populations is also many species on
 widely distributed. The endemic limit of islands
 On the continents there are greater climatic flu-
 tuations and more competition among com-
 paratively large number of species. New forms arise and
 spread rapidly during many habitats. On is-
 land the limit is more stable and equilibrium
 though the species may aggregate. The species of con-
 tinental regions are other land. As a result,
 plants form a refuge on islands as
 the population.

The islands of the North Atlantic such as the
 Azores, Madeira, and the Canary Islands are all vegetated by

laurel forests similar to those that disappeared from the Mediterranean as living forms long before the glacial epoch and are now found in its Tertiary fossil bed. The unique mammal life of Tasmania, the dragon trees of Socotra and the silverswords and tree plantains of Hawaii are other examples of ancient forms of life surviving in the isolation of islands. See EVOLUTION ORGANIC POPULATION DISPERSAL. [KLE]

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Isoantigen

An immunologically active protein or polysaccharide present in some but not all individuals in a particular species. These compounds initiate the formation of antibodies when introduced into other individuals of the species that lack the isoantigen. Like all antigens, they are also active in stimulating antibody production in heterologous species. The ABO, MN, and Rh blood factors in man constitute important examples. Consequently elaborate precautions for typing are required in blood transfusion. Analogous situations exist for the bloods of most other animal species. Isoantigens are also believed responsible for the ultimate failure of tissue grafts between individuals of the same species except those of the same genetic constitution or those that have been rendered tolerant. A situation of non-reaction for the surgical procedure of skin grafting.

Isoantigens are to be distinguished from autoantigens which are antigens active even in the species from which they are derived and in individuals who already possess the antigen. Brain and lens tissue as well as sperm constitute examples. The exceptions to the usual rule of non-antigenicity for self constituents may be more apparent than real, however, since the substances cited are all protected to some degree from contact with the blood and thus normally do not reach the sites of antibody formation except after experimental manipulation. Autoantibodies may also be produced in various disease states, perhaps as a result of modification of normal tissue by the infecting microorganism or by altered host metabolism, for example, the paroxysmal hemoglobinuria observed in syphilis, acquired hemolytic anemia, or some of the manifestations in rheumatic fever. See ANTIBODY ANTIGEN BLOOD GROUPS POLYSACCHARIDE PROTEIN. [HPT]

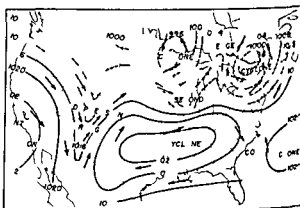
Isohar (atomic physics)

One of two or more atoms which have a common mass number A but which differ in atomic number Z . Thus, although isohars possess approximately equal mass, they differ in chemical properties

they are atoms of different elements. Isohars whose atomic numbers differ by unity cannot both be stable; one will inevitably decay into the other by β emission ($Z \rightarrow Z + 1$) or β emission ($Z \rightarrow Z - 1$) or electron capture ($Z \rightarrow Z - 1$). There are many examples of stable isobaric pairs, for instance Ti^{50} ($Z = 24$) and Cr^{50} ($Z = 26$) and four examples of stable isobaric triplets. At most values of A , the number of known radioactive isohars exceeds the number of stable ones. See ELECTRON CAPTURE RADIOACTIVITY. [HED]

Isohar (meteorology)

A line passing through points at which a constant value of the air pressure exists within a specified surface of reference. Central regions of closed isohars on the globe reveal systems of relative high and low pressure as shown on synoptic weather charts based upon simultaneous barometric observations at many stations. For such charts, the surface of reference is usually the geoid (mean sea level). In this case, the data represent pressures reduced to sea level, which yield unrealistic isohars over land. Horizontal pressure gradients determined from real isohars correlate well with the wind



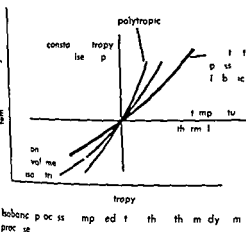
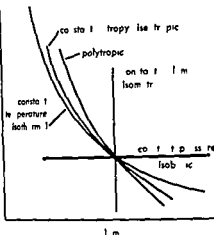
Fundamental shapes of isobars. (After R. Abromowicz, *LPH: Meteorology*, National Association of Councils, 1940).

velocity about 300–800 m above the surface (see AIR PRESSURE ATMOSPHERIC HIGH ATMOSPHERIC LOW). The illustration presents a fictitious weather chart designed to portray the configuration of isobars generally observed. [LPH]

Isoharic process

A frictionless thermodynamic process of a gas in which the heat transfer to or from the gas counterbalances a volume change at constant pressure. Such a process is illustrated by the expansion of gas when it is heated to lift a weight or do other work without stirring. Mathematically

$$Q_P = H + U_2 - U_1 = \int_1^2 P dV + U_2 - U_1 \\ = P \int_1^2 dV + U_2 - U_1 = (P_2 V_2 + U_2) - (P_1 V_1 + U_1)$$

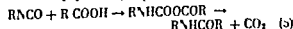
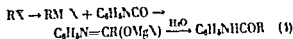
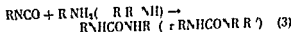
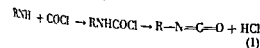


$$Q - H - H = m \int_1^2 C dT = m \int_1^2 T ds$$

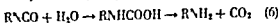
her Q is the tra f r e d h t at n t a t p e s -
 U is w k p r a b l e p s r e H i
 enthalpy U i t e l e g y f i l m m i
 mas C s p f i h a t e t a t p r e s n d
 is t p y S THERMODYNAMIC PRINCIPLES [J B]

Isocyanate

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 u i t ($RNHCOOR$) E q (2) m e
 u a E q (3) l k y l h l d s s l d e s (C_6H
 $NHCO$) E q (4) d b y l c a d s s m d s
 ($RNHCO$) E q (5)



Isocya tes hydr lyze in air to the un table



rbamic acid ($RNHCOOH$) which revert t the
 original am i e s t y l o f c a b o n d i x i d e E q (6)
 Unhydr lyzed i o c y n a t the react with th amine
 t g i e a s y m m e t r i l u r e a $RNHCONHR$ N r
 mally an im p o r t a n t r e a c t i o n l y b e u e the n u s
 s n c e m u t b e a d d e d c o t r o l l d h y d r l y i o f f r e e
 i o c y n a t e g r o u p t l i b e r a t e c a r b o d i x i d e i s the
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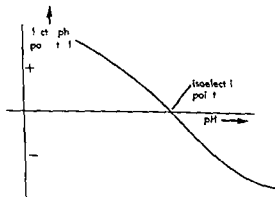
To a o i d h y d r o l y s i s b y a t m p h e r i c m i s t u r e
 s o c y a n a t e s a e b e s t k p t i n s e l e d g l a s c n t i e r

R e p l c e m e n t f o x y g e n b y u l f r a i n i s o t h i o -
 c y a n a t e s r e d c e s t h e a c t i v i t y c n d a b l y

[L B C.]

Isoelectric point

The p H a l e o f the d s p r s n m e d m o f a c o l
 l o d l u p e n n t w h c h the c o l l i d l p a r t i c l e
 d n t m e n n e l e c t i f i l d t h t i the p a r t i
 c l e s a r e l e c t r p h r t i c l y i e r t The i s o e l e c t r i c
 p o i n t i s f t e e m p l y e d t h a t i z e l l o d a l
 m t e l u h a t h p r o t i H o w e v e r r n g e o f
 l e s s i a l l y n e c e s s a r y s i c e the i l e c t r i c
 p o i t v r d t e t a b l y w t h (1) the i z e f t h p a r t i
 c l e s (2) the p u r t y a n d (3) the c o c n t r a t i o n o f
 i o s p e n t t h e r t h a n h y d o g e n i o n



G p h h o w g t h i c t c p o t

I f the p H l e o f a n e x t n c o l (t a b l i t y a t
 t b i d p i m l y t o e l e t i a l h a g e) i d j u s t e d
 t o w d t h i l e t p o t c o a g u l a t i o n w i l l o c c u r
 a t n a r t h o l c t r c p o i n t l t i n s i e s o l (t a
 b l i t y t b t e d p r m a l y t o o l a t) m a y b e a r
 r i d t o t h e l e c t c p n t w t h u t c o g u l a t o n
 b u t h l w i l l b e i n a r e g r n f m i n m u m s t a
 b l i t y s t h a t m i n m u m c n e t r t n f d l t

laurel forests similar to those that disappeared from the Mediterranean as living forms long before the glacial epoch and are now found in its Tertiary fossil bed. The unique mammal life of Taormina, the dragon trees of Socotra and the silverswords and tree plantains of Hawaii are other examples of ancient forms of life surviving in the isolation of islands. See EVOLUTION ORGANIC POPULATION DISPERSAL. [KLE]

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Isoantigen

A serologically active protein or polysaccharide present in some but not all individuals in a particular species. These compounds initiate the formation of antibodies when introduced into other individuals of the species that lack the isoantigen. Like all antigens, they are also active in stimulating antibody production in heterologous species. The ABO, MN, and Rh blood factors in man constitute important examples. Consequently elaborate precautions for typing are required in blood transfusion. Analogous situations exist for the bloods of most other animal species. Isoantigens are also believed responsible for the ultimate failure of tissue grafts between individuals of the same species, except those of the same genetic constitution or those that have been rendered tolerant. A situation of consequence for the surgical procedure of skin grafting.

Isoantigens are to be distinguished from autoantigens, which are antigens active even in the species from which they are derived and in individual who already possess the antigen. Brain and lentil, as well as sperm, constitute examples. The exceptions to the usual rule of nonantigenicity for self constituent may be more apparent than real, however, since the substances cited are all protected to some degree from contact with the blood and thus normally do not reach the sites of antibody formation except after experimental manipulation. Autoantibodies may also be produced in various disease states, perhaps as a result of modification of normal tissue by the infecting microorganism or by altered host metabolism, for example, the paroxysmal hemoglobinuria observed in syphilis, acquired hemolytic anemia, or some of the manifestations in rheumatic fever. See ANTIBODY ANTIGEN BLOOD GROUPS POLYSACCHARIDE PROTEIN. [HPT]

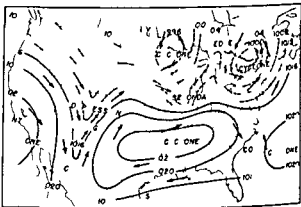
Isotherm (atomic physics)

One of two or more atoms which have a common mass number A but which differ in atomic number Z . Thus, although isotopes possess approximately equal mass, they differ in chemical properties

they are atoms of different elements. Isobars, whose atomic numbers differ by unity, cannot both be stable; one will inevitably decay into the other by β emission ($Z \rightarrow Z + 1$) or β emission ($Z \rightarrow Z - 1$) or electron capture ($Z \rightarrow Z - 1$). There are many examples of stable isobaric pairs, for instance Ti^{50} ($Z = 24$) and Cr^{50} ($Z = 26$), and four examples of stable isobaric triplets. At most values of A , the number of known radioactive isobars exceeds the number of stable ones. See ELECTRON CAPTURE RADIOACTIVITY. [HED]

Isotherm (meteorology)

A line passing through points at which a constant value of the air pressure exists within a specified surface of reference. Central regions of closed isobars on the globe reveal systems of relative high and low pressure as shown on synoptic weather charts based upon simultaneous barometric observations at many stations. For such charts, the surface of reference is usually the geoid (mean sea level). In this case, the data represent pressures reduced to sea level, which yield unreal isobars over land. Horizontal pressure gradients determined from real isobars correlate well with the wind



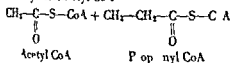
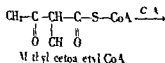
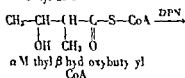
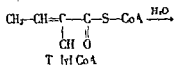
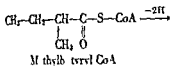
Fundamental shapes of isobars (After R. Abernethy, L. P. Harriss, *Meteorology*, National Academy of Sciences, 1940)

velocity about 300–800 m above the surface (see AIR PRESSURE ATMOSPHERIC HIGH ATMOSPHERIC LOW). The illustration presents a fictitious weather chart designed to portray the configurations of isobars generally observed. [LPH]

Isotherm process

A frictionless thermodynamic process of a gas in which the heat transfer for the process is zero. Such a process is illustrated by the expansion of a gas when it is heated at constant weight or does work on it, undergoing Mathematically

$$Q = W + U_2 - U_1 = \int_1^2 P dV + U_2 - U_1 \\ = P \int_1^2 V + U_2 - U_1 = (P_2 V_2 + U_2) - (P_1 V_1 + U_1)$$



[EAD]

Isomerism molecular

The molecular isomerism was introduced by J. J. Berzelius for different chemical compounds having the same empirical formula but different molecular formula. The possibility that the same elementary composition can be formed by two or more substances is a direct consequence of the organic theory which requires only that the atomic number of the elements (1-4 oxygen, hydrogen, etc.) be fully satisfied. Thus the identity of oxygen compounds is not affected by the arrangement of the atoms in the molecules.

Chain isomerism Among the alkane $\text{C}_n\text{H}_{2n+2}$ isomers, the results from the possibility of linking the same number of carbon atoms to produce either a straight chain or branched chains. For example, C_4H_{10} presents butane $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_3$ and isobutane $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}(\text{CH}_3)_2$. A third isomer, neopentane C_5H_{12} , represents $(\text{CH}_3)_4\text{C}$. The difference between these isomers is due to the different arrangement of the carbon atoms.

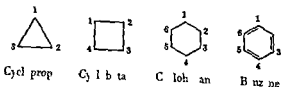
Position isomerism The position of the functional group in the molecule is another factor in isomerism. For example, in the case of alcohols, the position of the hydroxyl group in the carbon chain determines the isomer. Thus, for $\text{C}_4\text{H}_{10}\text{O}$, there are two isomers: butan-1-ol and butan-2-ol. Similarly, for aldehydes, the position of the aldehyde group determines the isomer. Thus, for $\text{C}_4\text{H}_8\text{O}$, there are two isomers: butanal and 2-methylpropanal.

$\text{C}_n\text{H}_{2n+2}$ (for example $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_3$ and $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}(\text{CH}_3)_2$)

If more than one hydrogen atom is replaced by atoms of one substituent element, more than one isomer is possible and even ethanol may provide the example. The principle however remains the same: the number of different types of hydrogen in a given molecule substituted by the same element determines how many monosubstituted isomers are possible. Thus $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{X}$ (where Z and X may be the same or different element) represents $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{X}$ and $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{X}$ and $\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{X}$ represent $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{X}$, $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{X}$, $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{X}$, $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{X}$, $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{X}$, and $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{X}$. The second and third will be identical if Z and X represent the same element.

In unsaturated compounds (simple alkenes and alkynes), the number of unique substitution for the double or triple bond determines the number of possible isomers. Thus a four-carbon alkene (or alkyne) has the simple term for which positional isomerism is possible: $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}=\text{CHCH}_3$ and $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{C}\equiv\text{CH}$ or $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}=\text{CHCH}_3$ and $\text{CH}_3\text{C}\equiv\text{CHCH}_3$.

In symmetrical cycloalkanes (cycloalkanes and benzene), all hydrogens are equivalent and only two types of substitution are possible for the existence of positional isomers. The number of such isomers depends on the size of the ring when the number of substituents (for example Z and CH) is limited to two. Thus there are two disubstituted cyclopropanes (1,1 and 1,2), three disubstituted cyclobutanes (1,1, 1,2 and 1,3), and four disubstituted cyclohexanes (1,1, 1,2, 1,3 and 1,4). The nature of the benzene ring limits disubstituted benzenes to three (1,2 (ortho), 1,3 (meta), and 1,4 (para)). Where there are three identical substituents, $\text{C}_6\text{H}_3\text{Z}_3$ there are three positional isomers possible (1,2,3-; 1,2,4- and 1,3,5-). But for $\text{C}_6\text{H}_4\text{Z}_2\text{X}_2$ there are six (1,2-; 2,2-; 3-; 4-; 5-; 6-). A method for determining the absolute position of substituents in benzene depends upon the experimental product of the substitution isomerism from a given disubstituted benzene (Koenigs method).



Where the system is not symmetrical (cycloalkenes, heterocyclic compounds, and polycyclic systems), the different positions of the substituents in the ring determine the type of isomerism. Thus, for cyclohexene, the position of the double bond and the position of the substituents determine the isomerism. Similarly, for polycyclic systems, the arrangement of the rings and the position of the substituents determine the isomerism.

ing agent will cause coagulation. Likewise viscosity changes often reach a minimum at or near the isoelectric point. See COLLOID ELECTROPHORESIS. ION PERMEABLE MEMBRANE PROTEIN [W O M]

Isoelectric sequence

A term used in spectroscopy to designate the set of spectra produced by different chemical elements ionized in such a way that their atoms or ions contain the same number of electrons. The following sequence is an example.

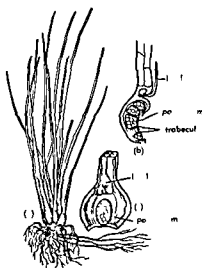
| Designation of spectrum | CaI | ScII | TiIII | VIV | CrV | MnVI |
|-------------------------|-----|-----------------|------------------|-----------------|------------------|------------------|
| Emitting atom or ion | Ca | Sc ⁺ | Ti ²⁺ | V ³⁺ | Cr ⁴⁺ | Mn ⁵⁺ |
| Atomic number Z | 20 | 21 | 22 | 23 | 24 | 25 |

Since the neutral atoms of these elements each contain Z electrons, removal of one electron from scandium, two from titanium, and so forth, yields a series of ions all of which have 20 electrons. Their spectra are therefore qualitatively similar, but the spectral terms (energy levels) increase approximately in proportion to the square of the core charge, just as they depend on Z in the one-electron sequence H, He, Be, and so forth (see ATOMIC STRUCTURE AND SPECTRA). As a result, the successive spectra shift progressively toward shorter wavelengths upon reaching the vacuum ultraviolet region. Isoelectric sequences are useful in predicting unknown spectra of ions belonging to a sequence in which other spectra are known.

[F A J]

Isoetales

A monotypic order of the plant subphylum Lycopodiata containing only one genus *Isoetes*. These plants are called quillworts because in all 64 spe-



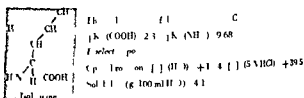
Isoetes (a) Entire plant (b) Longitudinal section of leaf base (c) Face view of ventral surface of leaf base (From A. J. Eamson, *New South Wales Botany*, 1955)

cies the leaves are long and narrow with a spoon-like base spirally arranged upon an underground cormlike structure. See STERM (BOTANY). Most species are epiaquatic although a few are terrestrial. They are confined to the cooler regions of the world.

Morphologists differ in their opinions regarding the relationship of the group. They are like the Selaginellales in having ligule, two kinds of pores (heteropores), and in producing two kinds of gametophytes. They are different from the other Lycopodiata in having multiciliate perms in lacking a suspensor (a chain of cells which serve to put the embryo in a favorable position in relation to its food supply) and in possessing a secondary meristem which develops some secondary tissue (see MERTISTEM LATERAL). The presence of a peculiar root-producing region which develops new dichotomous (forked) roots each year together with their anatomy suggests a close relationship with the fossil Lycopodiaceae, especially the genus *Pleurozia*. The phylogenetic connection between *Pleurozia* and *Isoetes* is accepted by many botanists and for this reason the families Pleuroziaceae and Isoetaceae are often included in the Isoetales. See PALFOTBOTANY, PLUFUROMELALS, TRACHEOPHYTA [F A V]

Bibliography See LYCOPSIDA

Isoleucine



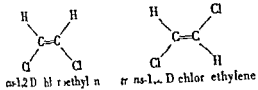
An amino acid considered essential for normal growth of animals. The amino acids are characterized physically by the following: (1) the pK_1 or the dissociation constant of the various titratable groups; (2) the isoelectric point, pH at which a dipolar ion does not migrate in an electric field; (3) the optical rotation or the rotation imparted to a beam of plane polarized light (frequently the D line of the sodium spectrum) passing through 1 decimeter of a solution of 100 grams in 100 ml; (4) solubility. See EQUILIBRIUM, IONIC, OPTICAL POINT, OPTICAL ACTIVITY, SPECTROPHOTOMETRIC ANALYSIS.

The biosynthesis of isoleucine occurs when pyruvate and α -ketoglutarate react to form α -aceto- α -hydroxyglutarate, which undergoes rearrangement and reduction to α - β -dihydroxy- β -methylvalerate. Dehydration of the α -keto acid and transamination complete the biosynthesis (see AMINO ACIDS). Most of the enzymes concerned also catalyze the analogous reactions in valine biosynthesis. See VALINE.

During metabolic degradation the first steps are decarboxylation and oxidative decarboxylation forming α -methylcrotonyl coenzyme A (α -methylcrotonyl CoA). The following sequence takes place:

plans ring serves as a reference point in the molecule and such molecules are called geometrical isomers

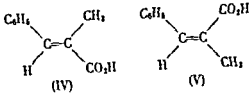
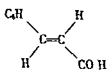
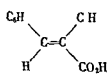
Cis-Trans Isomerism In any alkene system where the double bonded carbon each carry two different atoms or groups isomers are possible. That is two similar atoms or groups may lie on the same side of the double bond (trans) or on opposite sides of the double bond (cis). The alkene carbon and perpendicular to the plane of the alkene system is the sample



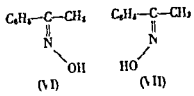
The rigidity of the double bond prevents free rotation, and thus the two geometrically different isomers constitute distinct entities which cannot be interconverted without the expenditure of sufficient energy to destroy the essential character of the double bond.

Such isomers would both have the same chemical properties and in every other respect the same. But all the thermodynamic differences are due to the difference in the spatial arrangement of the substituents. The difference in the spatial arrangement of the substituents is the cause of the difference in the thermodynamic properties. The difference in the spatial arrangement of the substituents is the cause of the difference in the thermodynamic properties.

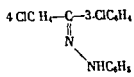
In designing part of a molecule a chemist must be able to properly reference points must be used preferably the alkene bond should carry atoms or groups so that the molecule is not ambiguous. For example, (B) and (C) are the same molecule, but (D) and (E) are different. The difference is in the spatial arrangement of the substituents.



and the oximes of acetophenone



cannot properly be called trans or cis. Therefore the terms anti (on opposite sides) and syn (on the same side) are used. The larger (or chemically more reactive) group is taken as the reference point (C₆H₅) and the functional group CO₂H in (IV) and (V). OH in (VI) and (VII) is said to be anti (IV) and (VI) or syn (V) and (VII) to it. Thus (IV) is anti-α-methylcinnamic acid (VI) is anti-acetophenoneoxime and (V) and (VII) are the corresponding syn isomers. Syn-anti isomerism will be encountered throughout organic chemistry in the doubly bonded carbon atom. Two different substituents, but it may be necessary to specify to which substituent the nitrogen substituent is syn or anti, thus:

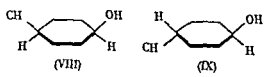


the phenyl group is anti to the 4-chlorophenyl and syn to the 3-chlorophenyl. Similar situations may obtain in syn-anti isomerism of alkenes.

Ring Isomerism If substituents are attached to alkene carbons which are part of a cyclic system the ring of which contains fewer than eight members. For example, 1,2-dichlorocyclohexene bond length and bond angles present the existence of the structure. In naming such substances it is necessary to be explicit, and the cis designation is employed.

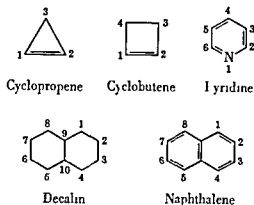
However, cyclostruins admit of geometrical isomerism in another sense, but it is not placed in the same (cis) or opposite (trans) side of the plane (strictly) defined by the atoms of the ring. The term is the geometrical isomer.

4-methylcyclohexane (VIII) and 4-methylcyclohexene (IX)



There are also cis and trans isomers of the double bond. The difference is in the spatial arrangement of the substituents. The difference in the spatial arrangement of the substituents is the cause of the difference in the thermodynamic properties. The difference in the spatial arrangement of the substituents is the cause of the difference in the thermodynamic properties.

Thus there are two monosubstituted cyclopropenes and cyclobutenes (1Z and 3Z) three monosubstituted pyridines (2Z 3Z and 4Z) three monosubstituted decalins (1Z 2Z and 9Z) and two monosubstituted naphthalenes (1Z and 2Z).



Naphthalene illustrates the effect of polysubstitution on positional isomerism in unsymmetrical cyclic system. In the parent hydrocarbon positions 1 4 5 and 8 are equivalent and are designated α positions 2 3 6 and 7 are designated β . The introduction of a substituent 7 in either an α or β position destroys the equivalence of all other positions; thus there are no fewer than 10 positional isomers for a naphthalene bearing two identical substituents Z (12 13- 14 15 16 17 18 23 26 and 27). Where the two substituents Z and X are not identical four of the listed isomers each provide a pair since an interchange of substituents in the 12 13 16 and 17 structures each provides a new isomer making 14 in all. Higher order substitution enormously increases the number of positional isomers but in naphthalene as well as in the other types of unsymmetrical cyclic systems the principle governing the total number of positional isomers remains the same. It is determined by the number of positionally different hydrogens which may be replaced by other atoms or groups of atoms.

Functional group isomerism The presence of multiple bonds or of atoms other than carbon and hydrogen (for example oxygen nitrogen) in an organic compound may give rise to isomers whose functional groups or reactive centers exhibit chemically distinguishable properties. Thus the formula C_4H_6 may represent 1 butyne 2 butyne (positional isomers) methylallene ($CH_2=CH=C=CH_2$) 1 3 butadiene ($CH=CHCH=CH$) 1 or 3 methylenecyclopropane (positional isomers) or methylene cyclopropane. In the same manner the monoalkenes are isomeric with cycloalkanes and dialkenes with alkynes bicycloalkanes and spiranes.

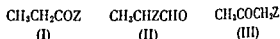
The introduction of oxygen to give compounds of the molecular formula C_3H_6O may produce alcohols $CH_3CH_2CH_2OH$ and $CH_3CHOHCH_3$ (positional isomers) or an ether $CH_3CH_2OCH_3$. When the carbon content is greater positionally isomeric ethers are possible as well. Likewise the

introduction of nitrogen may lead to functional group isomers thus $C_4H_{10}N$ represents *n* and 1 isopropylamine $CH_3CH_2CH_2NH_2$ or $(CH_3)_2CHNH_2$ chain isomers ethylmethylamine $CH_3CH_2NHCH_3$ or trimethylamine $(CH_3)_3N$. These three amines are functionally different and are classed as primary secondary and tertiary respectively.

Where the molecular formula is C_3H_6O for their possibilities for functional group isomers obtain. Thus C_3H_6O represents an aldehyde CH_3CH_2CHO a ketone CH_3COCH_3 two cyclic ethers $CH_3CH_2OCH_3$ and $CH_2CH_2OCH_2$ and an unsaturated

alcohol $CH=CHCH_2OH$. Likewise C_4H_9N represents three aldimines $CH_3CH=CHCH_3$ $CH=CHCH_2CH_3$ and $CH_3CH=NCH_3$ a ketimine $CH_3C(=NH)CH_3$ azetidine $(CH_2)_3NH$ two ethylenediamines $(CH_2)_2NCH_3$ and $[CH_2CH(CH_3)]_2NH$ and two unsaturated amines $CH=CHCH_2NH_2$ and $CH=CHNHCH_3$.

Where two or more heteroatoms (atoms other than carbon and hydrogen) are present the possibilities for functional group isomerism may be illustrated by the following structures wherein Z represents OH O alkyl halogen or NH.



Where Z is OH (I) represents an acid (II) a hydroxyketone where Z is O alkyl (I) is an ester (II) an alkoxy aldehyde (ether aldehyde) and (III) an alkoxy ketone where Z is halogen (I) is an acid halide (II) a haloaldehyde and (III) a halo ketone and where Z is NH_2 (I) is an amide (II) an amino aldehyde and (III) an aminoketone. Furthermore within each series regroupings of the constituent atoms are possible for example where Z is OH the atoms of (I) may be rearranged to represent various ethylene and propylene oxides (three and four membered cyclic ethers) with a hydroxyl substituent or the OH group may be broken up to form methoxyacetaldehyde CH_3OCH_2CHO or the esters methyl acetate CH_3COOCH_3 and ethyl formate CH_3CH_2OCHO .

Geometrical isomerism In the molecules of the *cis* isomers the atoms are attached to each other in the same order but with different spatial or geometrical orientation. The explicit geometry imposed on a molecule by the presence of a double bond between carbon atoms or between carbon and nitrogen or by the presence of a ring system (which for convenience may be considered planar however see CONFORMATIONAL ANALYSIS) make possible the existence of the *cis* isomers. Thus two atoms or groups of atoms attached to each of two different carbons may be relatively closer or farther from each other depending on the respective directions of the bonds from the carbon to which they are attached. The rigid double bond

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See MULTIPLE RADIATION RADIOACTIVITY

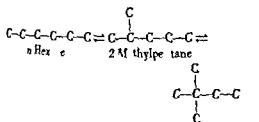
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Isomerization

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 molec ls. Isomizat n p ocs of practical
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 gr t alkyl group (2) h ft of a ngie-carbon
 bond m phth ne and (3) double-bond h ft in
 l fns

Migration of alkyl groups An ex mple of alkyl
 m pigrat n (k let ls merzaton) s



2,2-Dimethylbutane

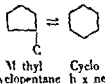
Isomizat n m e h hly b a ched e nfigu a
 t sh mme c l imp r t n e s nce it results
 in (1) imp oment in c mbu tion quality n the
 a t m bile ngin as me s d by tane n mbe
 and (2) a e d ch mical r a t i ty be u ter
 b r y c rho t m ult. Th unleaded moto
 m ch d octane numb f the abo h an i o
 rs ar 60.35 and 93.4 respect ely N rmal
 butane c n e t e d to i but ne (wh ch has re
 tary a bon tom) t stt h mical rea t iv
 th l fns l kly t r t whe n-b t n
 n inert.

Isomizat n of p ffs s a ever ble fi t
 n d r r a t i n l r t d by th rmodynam q l b
 num wh ch f rs i ed f r a n g at lowe
 temp t e U dex abl ck ng ea t i n l ad
 ng to cataly de t t n o u at h ghe tem
 per urex. Th y a e t lled by dd g a c a k
 ng app exo s h a sh y gen
 C n r s n f n r m l buta e to sob ta e is th
 num c l f i om izatio U ally t
 eacrd us i th r l q d r p o ph o e
 m um hl id ataly t p r moted w th h d o
 s m hl d l n th v p r p h a e p ocs (250-
 300 F) th l m um hl r d f t s p p t d
 on b u r e f th l qu d ph p ocs (180 F)

Isomerization is also observed in molten antimony trichloride or
 used in the form of a liquid complex with hydro-
 carbon. A second type of catalysis for isomeriza-
 tion (300-850 F) is a nickel metal usually
 platinum supported on a carrier. This may be
 alumina with halogen added to produce an acidic sur-
 face. All the processes are selective (95-98% to
 isobutane). Approximately 60% of the n-butane
 feed is converted per pass to isobutane in the liquid
 phase process.

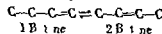
Isopentane, a high-octane component used in
 aviation gasoline, is made commercially by isomeriza-
 tion of n-pentane. Petroleum naphthas contain
 five- and six-carbon hydrocarbons also re-
 isomerized commercially for improvement in octane
 numbers. Nickel-metal catalyst is normally
 used with higher molecular weight feed. Isomeriza-
 tion of paraffins becomes a carbon atom's im-
 portance. A n-octane isomerism is limited by
 predominance of monomethyl branching at equilib-
 rium. Skeletal isomerization is an important sec-
 ondary reaction in catalytic cracking and catalytic
 reforming. Aromatic and olefin undergo skeletal
 isomerization as do paraffins.

Single carbon bond shift This process, in the
 case of asphalt, is illustrated by the reaction



Cyclohexane and methylcyclohexane have been
 produced commercially by liquid phase isomeriza-
 tion of the five-carbon ring isomer, normal
 chloroide-hydrocarbon-complex catalyst promoted
 by hydrogen chloride. Conversion per pass is high
 selectivity is excellent and reaction conditions mild
 (190 F). Cyclohexane is raw material for making
 nylon and may be dehydrated to tetralin
 zene. Methylcyclohexane has been used to make
 synthetic nitroalkyl acetates.

Shift of a double bond This process is fully
 applied when a specific shift is needed for chemi-
 cal synthesis. For example



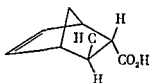
Double bond shift occurs selectively and de-
 celerates at temperatures below 450 F. However
 the proportion and going skeletal isomerization
 in reaction temperature is a function of tem-
 perature in the range 600-950 F. Equilibrium
 approaches at fairly high space velocities
 relatively low molar ratio of double bond to the more
 stable internal position (85°C for 2-butene at
 400 F). A detailed temperature-composition
 shift shows the n-octane isomerization is
 first order in the feed concentration of the
 gaseous catalyst. The type of isomeriza-
 tion is a function of the catalyst used. The
 catalysts used are nickel, cobalt, and nickel

The geometrical designations are referred to the principal (lowest numbered) substituent in the present instance the hydroxyl

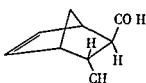
Bicyclo[$x y 0$]alkanes (for example bicyclo[4 4 0]decane decalin) may have either a *cis* or *trans* ring junction (if the rings are sufficiently large)

*cis* Decalin*trans* Decalin

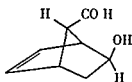
However in bicyclo[$x y z$]alkanes notably Diels Alder adducts of cyclopentadiene with substituted alkenes only *cis* ring junction is possible and the designations *endo* and *exo* are used respectively to locate substituents *trans* (*anti*) or *cis* (*syn*) to a bridge. Thus in (X) the carboxyl is *endo* and the methyl *exo* whereas in (XI) they are reversed



(X)

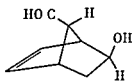


(XI)



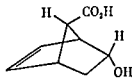
(XII)

endo 2 Hydroxyl bicyclo[2 2 1] 5 lepton *cis* 7 carboxylic acid
syn 2 Hydroxyl bicyclo[2 2 1] 5 lepton *trans* 7 carboxylic acid



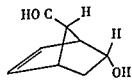
(XIII)

exo 2 Hydroxyl bicyclo[2 2 1] 5 lepton *anti* 7 carboxylic acid
syn 2 Hydroxyl bicyclo[2 2 1] 5 lepton *anti* 7 carboxylic acid



(XIV)

endo 2 Hydroxyl bicyclo[2 2 1] 5 lepton *syn* 7 carboxylic acid
endo 2 Hydroxyl bicyclo[2 2 1] 5 lepton *syn* 7 carboxylic acid



(XV)

endo 2 Hydroxyl bicyclo[2 2 1] 5 lepton *trans* 7 carboxylic acid
anti 2 Hydroxyl bicyclo[2 2 1] 5 lepton *anti* 7 carboxylic acid

Two further geometrical isomers are possible in this system one in which both substituents are *endo* and the other in which both are *exo*

The terms *cis* and *trans* *syn* and *anti* all find application in the bicyclic systems. Thus (XII) and (XIII) and (XII) and (XIV) may be considered *syn* (XII) and *anti* (XIII XIV) isomeric pairs and the prefix *anti* may be affixed to both carboxyl and hydroxyl in naming (XV). All four are geometrical isomers. See OPTICAL ACTIVITY STEREOCHEMISTRY TAUTOMERISM [W.B.]

Bibliography H Gilman *Organic Chemistry* 2d ed vol 1 1943

Isomerism nuclear

The metastability of excited states of atomic nuclei. While all excited states of atomic nuclei have finite half-lives, isomers are defined as atoms whose nuclei exist in excited states for measurable lengths of time (see EXCITED STATE METASTABLE STATE). Isomeric half-lives as short as 10^{-12} sec and as long as several years have been measured. The total energy of the nucleus when in an isomeric state may be from a few thousand to a few million electron volts greater than the energy of the nucleus in its ground state.

Nuclear isomers may decay by β ray positron or α particle emission or by the capture of atomic electrons but most often they lose their energy by making transitions to lower energy levels or to the ground state of the same nucleus. Internal conversion

ally n nio t on th p-amin alicylic acid and str pt mvc n H wev r iproniazid s now used a a p he nerg z r t eat b th mild and ere de- p es o s and p ych es a e ated with e ere c- pres n o eg ess na Se P YCHIC EVERGIZER P YCHOSIS Se als CHEMOTHERAPY TUBERCU to is. [N J G]

Isopoda

An rd r of mala o traean crustac an whch are chara tized by ha ng cep h n r head bea ing o e p i of ma ll peds in add ti n to the a t m a d bl and ma illae The maxill peds re d rived f om the legs of th fir t po tcephalic some whch lmo t e mpletely f ed with the rph l n A spa s l cki g The perae n or th x c t of seven d t nct o m t s e ch b ar wg p r of p re opod the legs The fi t pa r of re opod i n et helat a d t y p c lly all pa rs f pe pod e mlar n tructu e The ple r abd m n ha z m te The fir t f e pair f pleo alappe d ges ar f l aceous The la t p r is mod fied t ha dened ppe dage called u opods a d th la t som t s f ed w th the t l on int a plet l n Att ched to the inner ba e of the p re o- pods f the fem l ar platel ke app nd g s all ed noo g s Pro to egg depo iti n the o t g it cal tgr a d i t cle t f form a hood p ch nt b h th eg are d p it d L rval dex l pment o urs m th gg whle t is in the brood pouch m rs p m Th you g hat h f m the egg int the brood pu h fr m h ch th y m g min atu e alize lackn only the eventh p i f pere l p d There a e add d du ng few po mlet v n m l t Th r o pa ental ar of the hat hed t g The ld the ry th r th y ung ec t e no r liment f m the pa e t h a ben ab nd ed The w es a e p te f r l z at n s nte al and the mber of egg odu ed u ally l s tha SO The f m l th ally h te rgo nd du l b l t l l i kn wn f th g n t s of opods

Ecology Th m st familiar i op ds are the ter re t ial sow bugs or pill bug Many f the e a i mals r ll up into a c mpa ct ball when di turbed Land i pod are u ally f und in moi t en iron ments under d caying lea es and wood and under rocks l pods range in size from 1 mm (Munna) to around 70 cm (B thynomus) In addition to le- ing found on land i op ds ha e been found in h t springs (F sph eromatherm philum) and in sul terran an fre h waters (Caecidotea) and ca e The majority a e marine where they range fr m the in t ridal area t the g eat st depths of the ea Their food aries from wood (Lim oria) and ea weed (Lim oria and Idothea) t animal fle h (Ci ola a and Cymothoa) Ci ola a has been kn wn to infli t small but painful wounds on swim mer Cymothoa and t alles are predaceou comme sal and para itic on fi h The de truct e mar ne wood bor ng isopod Limnoria the gribble causes annual damag e timat d at \$ 000 000 t wharf p l ing n the United States and one species i repo t d to att ck treated lumber

Geolog c lly isopoda are an an ient group rang i g from th De on an to the Rec e t The genus Cyclosphaeroma fr m the Juras c of England i the be t k own isopod foss l and belongs to the o temp r y fam ly Sph erom dae

Classification Th cla ificati n of the Isopoda is not tab l zed f r example the gnathuds a d a thurid are included in the suborder Flabell ifera by ome in estigato nd not by othe Th e s a ne d f r crtical re ar h on the gener alities of th i la s eate M t tudents di ide the opods into seven equ ale t ub rders the Oni c dea V l i f ra Flabellife a Bopyr id a Gnath oide As lloa and Phreatoic d a

The On s de a e the pill b g w bug and wood lee wh h a e t r e tri l Some ha e ps udo- tr h a on ple p d nd the urop ds a e terminal Oniscus Po cell o and D t a e c mmon example

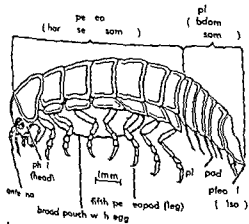
Val ife a e marin and fresh w ter specie with al el ke opods i flexed u de the pleon and c e i g the pleop d The m nd bles lack a palp Th nim ls su h s Idothea a d Arct s ar fre lvi g

The Flabell f a a ma e nd fre h w t r sp ces with the uropod exp ded lat rally w th the ple n to form a tal fan Thes an mals re f e l ng p edacro s c mmen al and para itic C la a Cym th a, A thu a nd Lim ori re c m mon ge

B pyr d are mar ne para t s c u ta eans The young a e m ct l ke fl bell te n but the d l t f m le s metam o phos d int a lea f k sc nd the male i m ute with many parts redu ed E m pl a e Bopy s and Io e

Gnath de s 10-leg d m i pa a t s f fi h with later l ur pod Th fem l m thparts ar t l whle th m l mand bles a e pnce l ke and p oye t b y nd th fro t l marg n of the cephalon a n C th

A ll ta a m ll tra e and fesh w t pe- es Th r p d e styl f rm nd t rm nal Ex

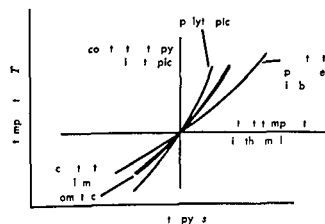
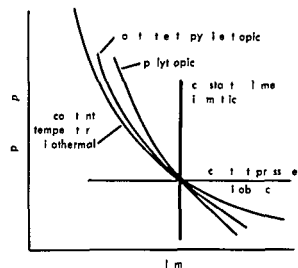


L ory f m le p d f om R J Me Th om po b l gy fih w d b g p d st Limnoria M m f C mp t Zo l gy H rv d C leg B ll 112(5) 363-388 1954

processes in part accounting for the high octane numbers of the gasolines See ALKYLATION AROMATIZATION CRACKING ISOMERISM MOLECULAR PETROLEUM PROCESSING [G E L]

Isometric process

A constant volume frictionless thermodynamic process in which the system is confined by mechanically rigid boundaries. Because no work can be done on the surroundings by a system with rigid boundaries, the heat transferred to the system equals the increase of internal energy stored in the system. This increase of internal energy in



Isometric process compared to other thermodynamic processes

turn is a function of the specific heat and the temperature rise of the system

$$Q = U_2 - U_1 = m \int_1^2 C_v dT = m \int_1^2 T ds$$

where Q is the heat transferred at constant volume, U is the internal energy, m is the mass, C_v is the specific heat at constant volume, T is the absolute temperature, and s is the entropy. The diagram shows that there is an increase in both the temperature and the pressure of a constant volume of gas as heat is transferred into the system. See THERMODYNAMIC PROCESSES [J B]

Isomorphism (crystallography)

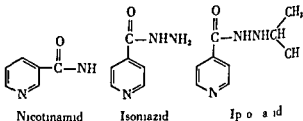
A similarity of crystalline form between substances of similar composition. Two substances which are isomorphous have a similar chemical formula, an equal or nearly equal ratio of cation to anion radius, and comparable polarizabilities of their ions. Isomorphism is morphotropism in a narrower, more precise sense (see MORPHOTROPISM). Similarity in the macroscopic characteristics of isomorphous crystals becomes so close that extreme precision is needed to distinguish between them.

Examples of isomorphous substances are NaNO_3 and CaCO_3 , $\text{CaAl}_2\text{Si}_2\text{O}_8$ and $\text{NaAlSi}_3\text{O}_8$, and BaSO_4 , SrSO_4 , and PbSO_4 . Substances such as TeO_2 and Li_2O are anti-isomorphous; they both have the calcium fluoride structure but the positions of the anions and cations are interchanged in the two structures because of the relative sizes of the ions. Isomorphous substances form mixed crystals, while anti-isomorphous substances do not. For a discussion of the chemical composition and crystal structure of isomorphous minerals, see MINERALOGY. See also CRYSTAL STRUCTURE [W D]

Bibliography: R. C. Evans, *Introduction to Crystal Chemistry* 1939; A. E. H. Tutton, *Crystallography and Practical Crystal Measurement* 1911.

Isonicotinic acid hydrazide

A chemical compound used as a chemotherapeutic agent for certain infectious and noninfectious diseases. The observation in 1945 that the vitamin nicotinamide inhibits the growth of the bacillus which causes tuberculosis led to a search for similar activity among compounds chemically related to nicotinamide. The direct outcome of this search has been the discovery of two drugs with outstanding potency against the tubercle bacillus: isonicotinic acid hydrazide (isoniazid) and its isopropyl ester (iproniazid). The chemical structures of these compounds are as follows:



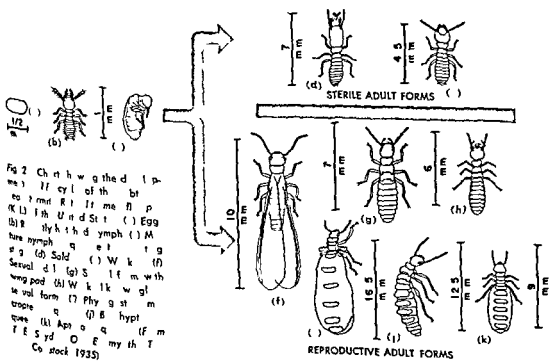
Isoniazid and iproniazid are highly specific in their action against the tuberculosis organism (*Mycobacterium tuberculosis*). They have proved inactive against a large number of other bacteria, protozoa, and viruses upon which they have been tested. In the treatment of human tuberculosis, iproniazid is no longer used because of its toxic effects produced during its chronic administration. This toxicity may be due to the inhibition of monoamine oxidase, an enzyme with which iproniazid does not interfere. Thus, isoniazid alone enjoys wide usage in the treatment of human tuberculosis [U U]



1 juri u to f rest, f uit and hade trees tea
bushes fi ld er p and grass on the veldt Their
d mage to truct res f man and their content is
er us e en i temperate regi ns In the United
State this an u ll is e timat d at \$100 000 000
See HYPERMASTIGIDA

Termite castes Termites are polymorphic. There are males female and three types of reproductives i.e. the monogamous winged forms with functional eyes the polygamous forms with wing pads and the polygamous wingless forms (Fig 2). A series of intermediates including fertile so-called soldier also occur. There may be three (Fig 3) types of termites i.e. male or female soldiers and two types of sterile male or female workers. They are usually blind. There is great diversity of kinds and great structural difference between the castes. Inter-castes also occur between workers and soldier. There is no worker caste among the more primitive termites and nymphs take over the duties. Among the highly specialized termites a soldier caste occurs. As a rule where workers do occur they constitute the main workforce in the colony for the greater portion of the year whereas soldiers constitute but a small proportion of the colony. At certain seasons of the year in the United States all types of the epoduct form occur in very large numbers.

Disinfection of labor The disinfection of labor with birth products and sterile form present in the only The epidemic keeps the color yellow. The workers who have evolved from the soldier to a representative and cause for and feed the young the reproduction of firms did the soldiers



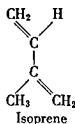
ternal pleopods are operculate and cover the other pleopods *Asellus lanura* and *Jaera* are genera of this suborder

Phreatoicoidea are laterally compressed isopods living in the fresh water streams of New Zealand and South Africa. In general aspect they look much like amphipods

About 3000 species of isopods are known today but it may be estimated that only one half of the existing species have been described See *CRUSTACEA* [R J M.]

Isoprene

A five carbon conjugated diolefin or diene having the structure



It does not occur naturally but is obtained by the destructive distillation of gas oil naphthas and rubber. It is also prepared by the catalytic decomposition of dipentene. It is commercially available in about 96% purity and is used in the production of butyl rubber.

The terpenes may be regarded as multiples of the isoprene unit C_5H_8 . Indeed isoprene may also be the foundation for other important plant products such as phytol, the sterols and the carotenoids.

Isoprene is a mobile colorless liquid boiling at 34.1°C having a specific gravity of 0.862. It exhibits all the characteristic reactions of dienes of this type. Isoprene polymerizes readily to form dimers and high molecular weight resins. The principal dimer formed is isopropenyl methyl cyclohexene.



Polymerization of isoprene during storage can be controlled by avoiding contact with oxygen by using inhibitors such as *tert* butyl catechol and by keeping it at low temperatures. See *DIENE TERPENE* [E L S.]

Isoptera

An order of the class Insecta commonly known as the termites. These insects have wings of equal size, biting mouthparts and a broad thorax; otherwise they are superficially antlike. They are social insects which live in large colonies with a caste system and division of labor. Termites are closely related to the cockroaches and there probably was a common ancestor; therefore termites have been termed social cockroaches. The primitive Australian termite *Mastotermes* has wing structures and an ovipositor similar to those of the cockroaches. The method of mating in the two groups

is similar with the apices of the abdomens opposed. Most termites lay their eggs singly but the primitive forms lay them in a mass like the cockroaches, which produce an ootheca (self-generated protective covering or case secreted over the eggs) by the adult (in ect). Furthermore some primitive cockroaches which bore into wood like termites contain symbiotic protozoa in their intestines which by means of enzymes digest the wood the termites ingest and render it available as food. Fossils of both termites and cockroaches occur in the Paleozoic era of the Carboniferous period. See *SOCIAL INSECTS*.

The colonizing flight of termites is not a nuptial flight but one for dispersal. After a short weak flight the males and females lose their wings and pairs seek favorable sites for nests. Only after the new colony is founded does mating take place. The rate of egg laying is slow at first but tropical queens may lay as many as 30,000 per day; the male or king continues to fertilize the queen for life. There is no pupal stage but there are quiescent stages of short duration while molting with marked changes from nymph to adult. Termite queens have a remarkable post-adult growth due to special diet. Physogastric queens of African fungus cultivating *Macrotermes* reach the length of 117 mm. With the kings they may live as long as 25 years.

Taxonomy and distribution. Over 2100 different species in 6 families and about 180 genera are known including 68 fossil species. The Isoptera may be classified as in the following table and includes the number of living and fossil species. The total does not include new species.

Families of Isoptera

| Family | Number of species | | Total |
|---------------------------|-------------------|--------|-------|
| | Living | Fossil | |
| Macrotermes | 1 | 16 | 17 |
| Kollaritermes | 8 | 11 | 93 |
| Heterotermes | 5 | 1 | 3 |
| Reticulitermes | 151 | 8 | 159 |
| Termite | 138 | 4 | 133 |
| Utermes | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| Dolotermes | 0 | 16 | 16 |
| Total members of families | 1787 | 68 | 1855 |

Isoptera occur in all zoogeographical regions except the Arctic and Antarctic. Termites reach the height of their development in the tropics; the 50° parallels of latitude and the mean annual 50° isotherms outline their distribution.

Nutrition. With advancing civilization termites have changed from scavengers in the forests to injurious insects. The food of termites is cellulose which is obtained from both living and dead vegetation. Cellulose ingested by certain termites is both ingested and digested by their symbiotic intestinal protozoa which produce the necessary enzymes (Fig. 1). Other termites lacking protozoa obtain their cellulose in a form more directly available as food. In the tropics termites are especially

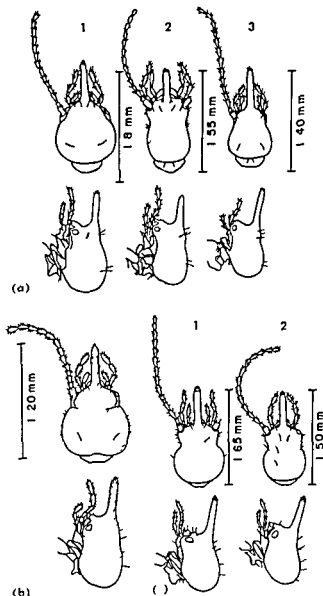


Fig 3 Dorsal and side views of heads of nasutiform termites to show polymorphism or difference in form of soldiers of the same species (a) Three types of soldier present in same termite and minor (b) One type of soldier present (c) Two types of soldier present major and minor (From T E Snyder O R Emyth Termite Comstock 1935)

The soldiers defend a colony when it is invaded by ants. Primitive soldier termites have sawtooth mandibles (Fig 4) but later there evolved a special gland in the front of the head with an acidulous secretion which superseded the mandibles in many termites. Among the termites intermediate between the primitive and highly specialized form both mandibles and frontal glands function. In the nasutiform termites a viscous liquid is ejected as a special and effective form of gas defense. In other highly specialized termites the mandibles are markedly asymmetrical and could not be used for biting but are used audibly to snap or flip the insects away from danger or they may be merely used for signaling to warn of danger. The workers and soldiers live only 1-2 years. Each year large numbers

of winged sexual adults leave the colony to found new colonies.

Evolution of castes The caste system and the occurrence of sterile forms are difficult to explain under the various theories of evolution. The castes or different types of termites in the same colony are not distinguishable until after the third molt when they can be separated into the sterile and reproductive forms. The determination and regulation of the castes can best be explained by the inhibition theory. Males, females, and soldiers secrete ecto-hormones which inhibit the nymphal development of individuals of the same sex or caste as that of the form secreting the hormone. In small colonies where the primary reproductive adults are functioning fully the development of additional supplementary forms is inhibited by the secretions of the parent reproductive adults. Each caste if present in the colony in sufficient numbers tends to delay or inhibit the development of individuals of the same caste by a hormone regulation. These secretions are transmitted to the young by the

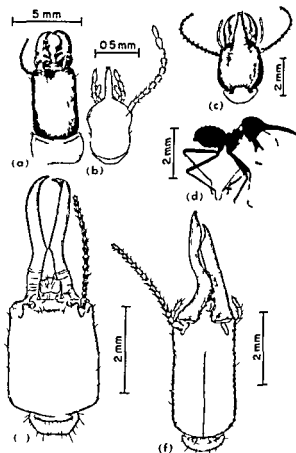


Fig 4 Soldier termites from the American tropics with different types of defense organs (a) Head of a primitive *Kalitmes* with biting jaws (b) Head of a highly specialized soldier termite with nasus for defense or chemical warfare (c) Head of soldier with both jaws and nasus (d) Lateral silhouette view of similar soldier (e, f) Heads of soldiers adapted for digging (From T E Snyder O R Emyth Termite Comstock 1935)

ton tree nest in Jamaica consisting of 500 000 individuals the traffic from the nest through shelter tubes was 8000 per hour during the period of greatest activity shortly after midnight

Within the mound nests the temperature and humidity are higher than outside The humidity may be as high as 92% In nests of the fungus growers air heated in the fungus gardens is circulated through the nest so that the high concentration of carbon dioxide is dissipated through the walls and cooled oxygen rises into the nest In the Lower Congo region of Africa remarkable small ovoid subterranean *Apicoterme*s nests occur with various progressive types of ventilation pores

Control For the purpose of preventing and remedying termite injury these insects may be classed as subterranean dampwood drywood carton and mound builders and harvesting types Damage to living vegetation by subterranean termites can be remedied by saturating the soil with low percentages of water emulsions of chlorinated hydrocarbons Structures can be protected against all types of termites by securing impervious foundations and the use of mechanical and chemical barriers Where dampwood termites injure woody vegetation



Fig 7 Fruiting body of a fungus (Agaric) growing from a bit of the fungus garden of a termite (From TESSYDORREMYTH TME C Mstock 1935)

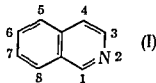
poison dusts may be injected into the galleries Where buildings are damaged by dampwood termites dryness should be secured by structural methods Damage to structures or furniture by drywood termites can be remedied by the injection of poison dusts into the galleries or by fumigation with lethal gases Termites in carton or mound nests can be similarly killed Harvesting termites can be controlled by the use of poison baits or their nests can be poisoned or fumigated See INSECTA INSECTICIDE [185]

Isopycnic

The line of intersection of an atmospheric isopycnic surface with some other surface for instance a surface of constant elevation or of constant atmospheric pressure An isopycnic surface is a surface in which the density of the air is constant Such surfaces are also designated isosteric surfaces because the surfaces in which the specific volume is constant coincide with the reciprocal conditions of isopycnic surfaces since density is the reciprocal of specific volume On a surface of constant pressure isopycnics coincide with isotherms because on such a surface density is a function solely of temperature On a constant pressure surface isopycnics lie close together when the field is strongly baroclinic and are absent when the field is barotropic See BAROCLINIC FIELD BAROTROPIC FIELD SOLENOID (METEOROLOGY) [185]

Isoquinoline

One of a group of organic compounds containing a benzene ring fused to the 3 4 positions of pyridine Isoquinoline (I) is a representative member of the group See HETEROCYCLIC COMPOUNDS QUINOLINE Quinoline produced from coal tar contains approximately 1-4% of isoquinoline and it is an important source of the latter material Separation is effected by selective extraction of the more basic isoquinoline with acid or by selective precipitation and fractional crystallization of salts Repeated fractional freezing and distillation have furnished pure isoquinoline Many plant alkaloids especially those in the cactus opium and curare groups are isoquinoline derivatives



Properties and preparation Isoquinoline is a colorless odorous liquid with bp 243.3°C, mp 26.5°C and n_D^{20} 1.62078 Its stability to acid base or heat is high Isoquinoline which is somewhat more basic than quinoline (the pK_a are respectively 5.14 and 4.51) can be protonated to form simple salts and alkylated to form quaternary

large land masses on the earth's surface tend to sink or rise so that given time for readjustment to occur their masses are hydrostatically supported from below except where local stresses are acting to upset equilibrium See **TERRESTRIAL GRAVITATION** see also **EARTH** [CVC]

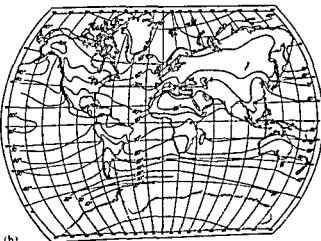
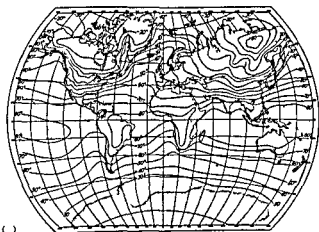
Bibliography W A Heiskanen and F A Vening Meinesz *The Earth and Its Gravity Field* 1958
B F Howell Jr *Introduction to Geophysics* 1959

Isotach

A line along which the speed of the wind is constant Isotachs are customarily represented on surfaces of constant elevation or atmospheric pressure or in vertical cross sections The closeness of spacing of the isotachs is indicative of the intensity of the wind shear on such surfaces In the region of a jet stream the isotachs are approximately parallel to the streamlines of wind direction and are closely spaced on either side of a core of maximum speed The term *isovel* is used synonymously with the term isotach See **JET STREAM WIND** [FS]

Isothermal chart

A map showing the distribution of air temperature (or sometimes sea surface or soil temperature) over a portion of the earth's surface or at some



World sea level isothermal charts (a) January (b) July
(After H R Byers *Geographical Meteorology* McGraw-Hill 1944)

level in the atmosphere On it isotherms are lines connecting places of equal temperature The temperatures thus displayed may all refer to the same instant may be averages for a day month season, or year or may be the hottest or coldest temperatures reported during some interval

Maps of mean monthly or mean annual temperature for continents hemispheres or the world sometimes show values reduced to sea level to eliminate the effect of elevation in decreasing average temperature by about $3.3^\circ\text{F}/1000\text{ ft}$ Such adjusted or sea level maps represent the effects of latitude continents and oceans in modifying temperature but they conceal the effect of mountains and high lands on temperature distributions The first isothermal chart prepared by Alexander von Humboldt in 1817 for low and middle latitudes of the Northern Hemisphere was the first use of isopleth methods to show the geographic distribution of a quantity other than elevation

These maps are now varied in type and use Isothermal charts are drawn daily in major weather forecasting centers 5 day 2 week and monthly charts are used regularly in long range forecasting mean monthly and mean annual charts are compiled and published by most national weather services and are presented in standard books on for example climate geography and agriculture See **AIR TEMPERATURE** **TEMPERATURE INVERSION** [AC]

Isothermal process

A frictionless expansion or contraction process accompanied by heat addition or removal from the system at a rate just adequate to maintain a constant temperature of the gas while the process is going on

Because the internal energy of an ideal gas is a function of the temperature alone and because the temperature remains constant in this process the internal energy stored in the system also remains constant

In an isothermal expansion process the heat added to the system is precisely equal to the work done by the isothermal expansion for there is no change in the stored energy of the system

$$Q_T = W + U_2 - U_1 = W = \int_1^2 P dV$$

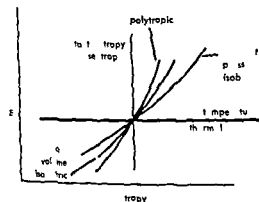
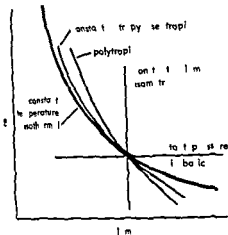
where Q_T is the heat transferred at constant temperature T W is work U is internal energy and V is volume But from the perfect gas law

$$PV = mRT = \text{Constant} = C \quad \text{and} \quad P = C/V$$

where P is absolute pressure m is mass and R is the gas constant Thus

$$\begin{aligned} Q_T &= \int_1^2 P dV = C \int_1^2 \frac{dV}{V} = mRT \ln \frac{V_2}{V_1} \\ &= mRT \ln \frac{P_1}{P_2} = mT(s_2 - s_1) \end{aligned}$$

where s is entropy The isothermal reversible com



soth r m l p ess mp d t oth th r m dy m
processe

process on p on p is omp ed to other
de l g s p o c e s s e t h d g r m S e THERMO-
DYNAMIC PROCESSES [J B]

Isotope

O f r n o m t o m s w h i c h d i p l a y c n
l a n t d i f f n e $A-Z$ b e t w e e t h e i r m n m
b e A n d t h a t o m n u m b e r Z T h s d p i t e
d i f f e r e s n t h t o t a l n u m b e r o f n l e c o n t i
n e n t t h u m b e r s f n e u t r o n t h n u c l o f
s o l u c e s t h m T h e n m b s f n a t u r a l l y
o c c u r i n g o t e s p i d u f l e i d n e e n c e r n
t h t a b i l i t y f p a t c u l r n u t n c o n f i g a t
i n g F e m p l e t h e r e l t r i l y l g e n m b r
(x d e n r s p t l y) o f n a t u r a l l y o c c u r
r i n g 50. a n d 8 n t n t s g e e t t h a t
t h e n u m b e r s f r a t i o n e s p e c i a l l y t a b l e
O n t h e b d f r o m t h f c t t h m t a t m s
w i t h o d d n u m b e r s f u t r e a n t n e
m a y c l d e t h t d d n u t n c o f i g u r e
l e t l y u t a b l S N U C L E A R S T R U C T U R E

[H E D]

Isotope

O n f e w m o t m h g t h e s a m e t m
n u m b e r Z b t d f f e t m n m b e A T h n u c l e
f n o t p r e l a n d n t f a b e f p t n

b u t d i f f e r e n t n u m b e r o f n e u t r o n s T h u s a l t h o u g h
t h e y d i f f e r i n m a s s i o t o p e b e l o g t o t h e s a m e
c h e m i c a l l e m e t F o r m o t e l e m e n t s b o t h s t a b l e
a n d a d a c t i v e i s o t o p e s a r e k n o w n t h e l a t t e r h o w
e v e r u n l e s s o c c u r r i n g n a t u r a l l y a r e d i c u s s e d e l e
w h e r e S e e R A D I O I S O T O P E

T h e o c c u r r e n c e a n d d e g r e e o f i o t o p y a m o n g t h e
83 e l e m e n t s t h a t a r e f o u n d i n n a t u r e i n s i g n i f i c a n t
a m o u n t s h a v e b e e n a s c e r t a i n e d b y m e a n s o f m a s
s p e c t r o m e t r s t u d i e s (s e e M A S S S P E C T R O S C O P E)
T l ($Z = 50$) f o r e x a m p l e p o s s e s 10 s t a b l e
i s o t o p e s ($A = 112, 114, 115, 116, 117, 118, 119,$
120, 122, a n d 14) a l a r g e r n u m b e r t h a n a n y o t h e r
e l e m e n t O n t h e o t h e r h a n d 0 e l e m e n t p o s s e s n
i s t o p s e a h o f t h e s e c n s i s o f o e t y p e o f a t o m
o n l y S u h e l m n t a r e a d d e d t o b e a n i o t o p c T h e
r e m a i n i n g 62 e l e m e n t s p o s s i o t o p e s r a n g i n g i n
n u m b e r f r o m t w o t o m i l l i o n A l t o g e t h e r 287 d i f f e r e n t
a t o m p r e c i s e a r e f o u n d i n a p p r o x i m a t e q u a n t i t y
i n n a t u r e (s e e f l u i d a t n)

Nuclear stability R e g u l a r i t i e s i n t h e t a b l e o f
n a t u r a l l y o c c u r r i n g a t o m s r e a l e r t i n f a c t c n
c e n t i g n u c l e a r f o r c e s T h e 287 d i f f e r e n t a t o m i c
s p e c i e s a r e d i v i d e d a s f o l l o w s 168 e v e n e n
(e v e n n u m b e r o f p r o t o n a n d e v e n n u m b e r o f n u
t r o n s) 57 e v e n - o d d 53 o d d - e v e n a n d 9 o d d - o d d
T h e t a t s t r i s d s c l o s e t h p a i r i n g t e n d e n c y o f
n u c l e a r c o n t e n t a d e s t a b l i s h t h a t t h e r e i s n
s i g n i f i c a n t d i f f e r e n c e i n s t a b i l i t y b e t w e e o d d p r o
t o n d d d n u t r o n o f i g u r a t i o n T h e e x i s t e n c e
o f a c l a s s i c a l l y l a r g e n u m b e r o f i s o t o p e s p r o v i d e s
e v i d e n c e f o r a p r o b a b l y t a b l e p r o t o n c o n f i g u r a
t i o n O t h b s i f o x a m p l e t h e e x t r a t a b i l i t y
a s o c a t d w i t h t h e 50-p r o t o n e f i g u r a t i o n (t h t
i t i m) h s b e n i n f r e d S e e N U C L E A R S T R U C T U R E

Isotopic abundances M e a s u r e m e n t s h a v e b e e n d e t e r m i n e d
d e t e r m i n e d r e l a t i v e b u n d n e s s i s o t o p e F o r
m a n y e l e m e n t s t h e r e l a t i v e i s o t o p e b u n d a n c e s
h o w n o n a t u r a l v a r i a t i o n O t h e r h a n d t h e
i s o t o p i c c o n t e n t o f e a l e l e m e n t s i s
t o o n g l y d e p e n d e n t u p o n t h e h i s t o r y o f t h e e l e m e n t
t h a t b e i n g e x a m i n e d I n t h e c a s e s t h e a r r a
t u n n t o p c c o n t i n u e n c a n b e t r i b u t e d t o
c r i t n a t u r a l p r o c e s s e s a n d t h e s t a d y f i t h v a r i a
t i o n p r o d u c t a p w r f l m e a n s o f e l u c i d a t i n g
t h e p r o c e s s e s t h e m l e s s d o f a s c e r t a i n i n g t h e
p r i o d f t i m i n w h i c h t h e s a m p l e u n d e r i n e s t i g a
t i o n h a s b e e n s u b j e c t e d t o t h e m S o m e d e t a i l o f
t h e t y p e o f s t u d y e n o w g e n e r a l l y m e a n s g i t h
d u i n o f b n o m l i o t o p c a b u d n e s
c a l c u l a t e d b y a d o t e d e v

A m o n g t h e r a d i o a c t i v e o c c u r r i n g a t o m s p e c i e s
e a f w w h h a r e a d a t e d T h e h a l f l i f e
(t h e a v e r a g e t i m e i n t r a v e l r e q u i r e d f o r o n e - h a l f
o f a h t n d e r g r a d a t e d c y) a r e e r y
l i n g b t k o w T h e m o t i m p o r t a n t m b e o f
t h i s g r o p e a r e R b T h ¹²¹ I a d U
T h e l a t n m e d r e t n f m e d b y m a n
o f m p l i c a t e d q u e s t i o n s o f α β d y s t a
t a b l i t y t e p e f l e d (P b P b a n d P b
r e p e t i t y) O n e m a y t h e r e f e r b y d e t m i g
t h p e n t m u t s f T h a n d a d g e n i P b
i n g n e o m p t e t h e a g e o f t h e o e I n a n

analogous manner the age of uranium ores may be deduced K^0 decays to either Ar^{40} (by β emission or K electron capture) or Ca^0 (by β emission). The $K-^{40}Ar$ decay is proving increasingly useful in the geochronology of potassium ores which are widely distributed in the earth's crust. The Rb^{87} decay (to Sr^{87} by β emission) is also utilized in the dating of minerals. In each of these cases the radioactive decay manifests itself as an altered

from normal isotopic distribution in the daughter element. See RADIOACTIVITY ROCK (AGE DETERMINATION).

The other altered isotopic distributions that are found in nature result from small differences in the physical and chemical properties of the isotopes of an element. These differences lead to isotopic fractionation (separation into different portions) chiefly via the processes of diffusion, evaporation,

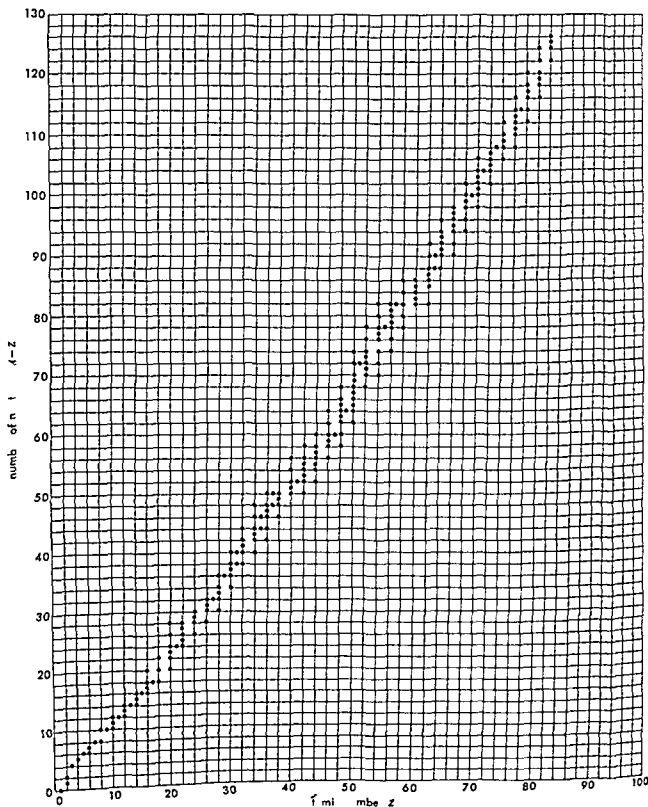


Chart of stable isotopes

mica In the applications mass spectrometers are used to make the sample analysis See ROCK (AGE DETERMINATION) [C L B]

Isotope separation (stable isotopes)

Many chemical elements always occur in nature as a mixture of several isotopes. The isotopes of any given element have identical chemical properties but there are slight differences in their physical properties because of the differences in mass of the individual isotopes (see ISOTOPE). Thus it is possible to separate physically the isotopes of an element to produce material of isotopic composition different from that which occurs in nature. Although these separation processes are all quite difficult and expensive to carry out they are not inherently different from the usual operations employed in the chemical process industries.

The separation of isotopes is particularly important in the nuclear energy field because individual isotopes may have completely different nuclear properties. For example uranium 235 is used as a fuel for nuclear chain reactors, heavy water (deuterium oxide) is used as a neutron moderator in nuclear chain reactors and deuterium gas is a possible fuel for thermonuclear reactors. Separated isotopes are also used widely for research on the structure and properties of the nucleus.

The process which is best suited for separating the isotopes of a given element depends upon the mass of the element and the quantity of separated material which is desired. Research quantities of separated isotopes are best prepared by electromagnetic separation in a mass spectrometer. For example gram quantities of many separated isotopes have been prepared at the Oak Ridge National Laboratory using the large electromagnetic separators which were built during World War II. The electromagnetic process has the advantage that a fairly complete separation of two isotopes can be obtained in one operation.

When moderate quantities of a separated isotope are desired thermal diffusion may be used. Although thermal diffusion requires a large energy input this is more than offset by the simplicity of the equipment, absence of moving parts and high separation obtained in a small volume.

In the large scale separation of stable isotopes the best processes are those which have the highest thermodynamic efficiencies. Reversible processes involving distillation and chemical exchange are best for separating the light isotopes such as deuterium. For heavy isotopes such as those of uranium however no appreciable separation is obtained by the reversible process and some type of irreversible process such as gaseous diffusion must be used. Although reversible processes have in general higher efficiencies than irreversible ones the absolute efficiency of any isotope separation process is very small.

Gaseous diffusion This process has turned out to be the most economical for the separation of the

isotopes of uranium. It is based on the fact that in a mixture of two gases of different molecular weights, molecules of the lighter gas will on the average be traveling at higher velocities than those of the heavier gas. If there is a porous barrier with holes just large enough to permit passage of the individual molecules but without permitting bulk flow of the gas as a whole, the probability of a gas molecule passing through the barrier will be directly proportional to its velocity. From kinetic theory it can be shown that the velocity of a gas molecule is inversely proportional to the square root of its molecular weight, so that the efficiency of gaseous diffusion will depend on the ratio of the square roots of the molecular weights of the two gases present. See DIFFUSION IN GASES AND LIQUIDS KINETIC THEORY OF MATTER.

The only uranium compound which is a gas at a reasonable temperature and pressure is uranium hexafluoride UF_6 . The two isotopes to be separated are $U^{235}F_6$ and $U^{238}F_6$ and the efficiency of separation depends on the quantity

$$\sqrt{U^{235}F_6/U^{238}F_6} = 1.0043$$

Since this number is close to unity the separation is very small in any one step of the process.

The separation of the isotopes of uranium in the United States is carried out in three plants operated for the Atomic Energy Commission which are located at Oak Ridge, Tenn., Paducah, Ky., and Portsmouth, Ohio. In each of these installations natural uranium containing 0.71% U^{235} and the balance U^{238} in the form of UF_6 gas is separated into an enriched uranium product containing more than 90% U^{235} and a waste containing about 0.3% U^{235} . The British have a gaseous diffusion plant at Capenhurst and the Soviet Union has facilities at an undisclosed location.

The success of the gaseous diffusion process is dependent on the performance of the single diffusion stage. In each stage UF_6 gas is compressed, passed through a cooler to remove the heat of compression and then admitted to the vessel containing the porous barrier (Fig. 1). About half the gas entering the vessel diffuses through the barrier and passes to the next higher stage. This diffused gas contains slightly more of the U^{235} isotope. The undiffused gas is slightly depleted in the U^{235} isotope and passes to the next lower stage.

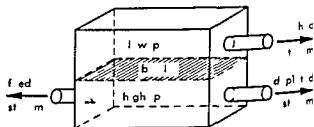


Fig. 1 Gaseous diffusion stage (From H. Etherington, *Nuclear Engineering Handbook*, McGraw-Hill, 1958).

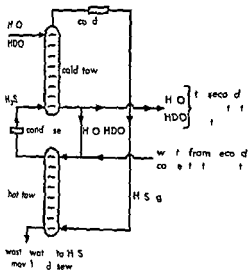


Fig 2 Dual-temperature H_2S - HDO exchange. The product is a mixture of H_2O , HDO , and D_2O which is then separated by fractional distillation. The relative distribution of heavy and light water is affected by temperature and the success of the process is determined by the difference between the concentrations in the hot and the cold towers.

The chief use of chemical exchange is in the large-scale production of heavy water. A dual-temperature exchange reaction between water which contain HDO and D_2O molecules as well as H_2O molecules and hydrogen sulfide (H_2S) gas for the primary separation of heavy water is used at the Savannah River plant. The separation is carried out in a series of hot towers operating at the boiling point and cold towers operating at room temperature (Fig 2). In each tower liquid water passes downward countercurrent to the rising H_2S gas. The relative distribution of heavy and light water is affected by temperature and the success of the process is determined by the difference between the concentrations in the hot and the cold towers.

Chemical exchange has also been used for the large-scale separation of other isotopes. For example, the isotopes of boron have been separated by fractional distillation of the boron trifluoride-dimethyl ether complex.

Distillation. The separation of isotopes by distillation is much less efficient than separation by other methods. Distillation was used during World War II to produce heavy water, but the cost was high and the plants are no longer in existence. The only present large-scale use of distillation is at Savannah River where fractional distillation is used to concentrate the product from the dual-temperature process (12–16% D_2O) up to 95–98% D_2O . See DISTILLATION.

Electrolysis. Electrolysis of water is the oldest large-scale method of producing heavy water. Under favorable conditions the ratio of hydrogen to deuterium in the gas leaving a cell in which water is electrolyzed is 8 times the ratio of these isotopes in the liquid. In spite of this high degree of separation, electrolysis can be used only where electricity is very cheap, as in Norway, because of the large power consumption per pound of D_2O produced. Electrolysis is used in the United States only as a finishing step to concentrate the final product specification.

Electromagnetic process. Electromagnetic separation was the method which was first used to produce the existence of isotopes. The mass spectrometer and mass spectrograph are still widely used by physicists as a technique (see MASS SPECTROSCOPY). In the electromagnetic process, a pair of thin metal plates is analyzed and ionized, a accelerated in an electric field and enters a magnetic field which causes the ions to be bent in a circular path (Fig 3). Since the light ions have less momentum than the heavy ions, they will be bent through a smaller radius and the two isotopes can be separated by placing collectors at the proper location.

During World War II a large electromagnetic separation plant was built at Oak Ridge to separate the isotopes of uranium. The large mass spectrometer used there was referred to by the code name Calutron, a contraction of California Unirity

Several thousand additional stages are required for the production of heavy water. The combination of stages is known as a cascade, and the cascade which brings about separation with the least work is known as an ideal cascade. The size of the stages varies tremendously with the feed gas, the natural uranium isotope, and the largest and the final product is the most efficient.

Check of piping and process equipment are needed to handle the UF₆ gas. Thousands of pumps of a different size must be required. The power requirement for the gas exchange is approximately 10% of the electric power output of the United States has been required to operate the three different plants.

The gaseous diffusion process was originally developed as a means of producing highly enriched uranium from boric acid. At present much of the enriched uranium produced by gaseous diffusion is used as fuel for nuclear reactors.

Chemical exchange. The chemical exchange process has been developed to be the most efficient for separating isotopes of the lighter elements. The process is based on the fact that if equilibrium is established between two examples of a gas and a liquid phase, the composition of the isotopes will be different. This is the hydrogen gas and heavy hydrogen gas (deuterium) in the water. The ratio of heavy hydrogen gas (deuterium) to light hydrogen gas is 1 to 6,400. By repeating the process a small enrichment is possible. The final enrichment of the isotopes with a relatively small number of stages.

cyclotron. The first kilogram quantities of U^{235} were produced in 1944. With the completion of the gaseous diffusion plant at Oak Ridge the electromagnetic process was found to be uneconomical and was abandoned in 1946. However, some of the equipment is still being used to produce gram quantities of separated isotopes for research purposes.

Thermal diffusion. The separation of isotopes by thermal diffusion is based on the fact that when a temperature gradient is established in a mixture of uniform composition, one component will concentrate near the hot region and the other near the cold region. Thermal diffusion is carried out in the annular space between two vertical concentric pipes, the inner one heated and the outer one cooled. Because of thermal convection of the fluid, there is a countercurrent flow which greatly increases the separation obtained in simple thermal diffusion and makes possible substantial separations in a reasonable column height.

Thermal diffusion has been used to separate small quantities of isotopes for research purposes. In 1944 a plant was built at Oak Ridge to separate the isotopes of uranium by thermal diffusion. However, the steam consumption was very large and the plant was dismantled when the gaseous diffusion facilities were completed.

Centrifugation. The use of a centrifuge to separate isotopes has one major advantage, namely, that the separation depends only on the difference in masses of the two isotopes and not on the ratio of their masses. Thus it is no more difficult to separate the isotopes of uranium than those of the light elements. A disadvantage of the centrifuge method is that a very high speed of rotation is required to obtain any substantial separation in a single unit.

A centrifuge pilot plant was built during World War II, but further work on the process was discontinued because of engineering problems involved in the operation of high-speed rotors, the low capacity of the individual machines, and the large power input required to overcome friction. See CENTRIFUGATION.

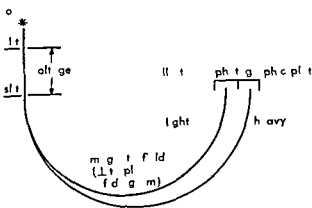


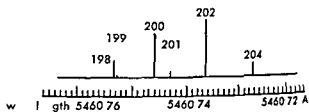
Fig. 3. Diagram of mass spectrometer of Caltech (From R. Stephenson, *Introduction to Nuclear Energy*, 2d ed., McGraw-Hill, 1958).

Nozzle process. Isotopes can be separated by allowing a gaseous compound to exhaust through a properly shaped nozzle. Preliminary calculations indicate that this relatively new method may be competitive with gaseous diffusion for separating the isotopes of uranium. See RADIOISOTOPE PRODUCTION. See also DEUTERIUM, HEAVY WATER, NUCLEAR FUELS. [RMSV]

Bibliography. M. Benedict and T. H. Pigford, *Nuclear Chemical Engineering*, 1957; K. P. Cohen, *The Theory of Isotope Separation as Applied to the Large Scale Production of U^{235}* , 1951; R. Stephenson, *Introduction to Nuclear Engineering*, 2d ed., 1958.

Isotope shift

A displacement of spectral lines which come from the different isotopes of an element. This shift in wavelength is caused mainly by differences in nuclear masses and differences in nuclear volumes. The first effect predominates in the lightest ele-



Isotope shifts in the green line of mercury. The lines indicate the hypothetical structure components of the isotopes having odd mass numbers.

ments but becomes negligible for atomic numbers greater than about 40. The mass effect in electron atoms results from the variation of the reduced mass $m_A/(m + A)$, where m is the electron mass and A is the nuclear mass, and was important in establishing the Bohr theory (see ATOMIC STRUCTURE AND SPECTRA, RYDBERG CONSTANT). The shift of the first line of the Balmer series between hydrogen and deuterium is 1.325 Å, and this led to the discovery of deuterium. The volume effect is important for heavy elements and gives information about nuclear structure. Deviations from the theoretical volume effect allow an evaluation of nuclear quadrupole moments and nuclear shape. A typical volume effect is shown in the illustration. Though the lines for the isotopes with even mass numbers are seen to be almost equally spaced, the lines for the odd ones do not lie even approximately halfway between. [FAJ]

Isotopic spin

A quantum mechanical variable introduced for convenience in interpreting nuclear reactions and hyperon decays.

In the quantum mechanics of atomic nuclei it is sometimes convenient to regard the proton and the neutron as two different states of the same particle called the nucleon. The concept is useful as a means of giving expression to the apparent

vivid and persistent itching is associated with pathological skin conditions (prurigo) and with the irritant action of itch powder the spicules of the plant cowhage (cow itch)

The most convincing evidence that itch derives from the operation of the same nervous mechanism as that responsible for pain comes from experiments on human skin. In these experiments a brief train of high voltage sparks imparted to the skin at a rate of five or more per second each too weak to elicit any sensation may evoke the itching sensation. The same stimuli at higher intensity yield pain. The presumption is that itch is associated with a slow but enduring succession of low frequency impulses in the cutaneous nerve fibers leading to the central nervous system from that portion of the skin. Pain of a stronger and more disagreeable quality results from nervous discharges of higher frequency.

In skin rendered irritable by disease or inflammation itching may sometimes be evoked by simply touching or stroking it mechanically. Temperature changes may produce itch under some conditions. However aroused the itching sensation is a powerful stimulator of action leading promptly to scratching or some other device to break up the persistent steady pattern of nervous impulses underlying it. See PAIN CUTANEOUS [FAC]

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Ixodides

A suborder of the Acarina class Arachnida comprising the ticks. Ticks differ from mites, their nearest relatives, in their larger size and in having a pair of breathing pore or spiracles behind the third or fourth pair of legs. They have a gnathosoma (or so called head or capitulum) which consists of a base (basis capituli) a pair of palps and a rigid elongated ventrally toothed hypostome which anchors the parasite to its host. They also have a pair of protrusible cutting organs or chelicerae which permit the insertion of the hypostome. The stages in the life cycle are egg, larva, nymph and adult. The larvae have three pairs of legs, nymphs and adults four. The 600 or so known species are all blood sucking external parasites of vertebrates including amphibians, reptiles, birds and mammals.

Ticks are divided into three families: Argasidae, Ixodidae and Nuttalliellidae. The latter contains but one exceedingly rare African species, *Nuttalliella namaqua*, which is morphologically intermediate between the Argasidae and the Ixodidae. It is of no known importance either medically or economically.

Argasidae Argasids or the soft ticks differ greatly from ixodids in that the exes are imilar, the integument of adults and nymph is leathery and wrinkled, there is no dorsal plate or scutum, the gnathosoma is ventral in adults and nymphs but anterior in larvae, and the spiracles are small



Fig. 1. *Argasid tick Ornithodoros* (Duges) *hermsi* (Wheeler). Natural size.

and anterior to the hindlegs (Fig. 1). The ticks frequent nests, dens, and resting places of their hosts. Adults feed intermittently and eggs are laid a few at a time in niches where the female seeks shelter. Larvae feed for a few minutes to several days, then detach and transform to nymphs which feed and molt several times before transforming to adults. Nymphs and adults are notably resistant to starvation; some are known to live 10 years or longer without feeding.

The family contains about 85 species, with 90 in the genus *Argas* and 60 in *Ornithodoros*. Several are of medical or veterinary importance. *Argas persicus* (Oken), the fowl tick, is a serious pest of poultry throughout most of the warmer and drier regions of the world. Nearly everywhere it occurs it carries fowl spirochetosis, a disease with a high mortality rate. Larvae and nymphs of *Otobius megnini*, the spinose ear tick, feed deep in the ears of domesticated animals in many semiarid regions. Heavy infestations cause intense irritation which lead to unthriftiness and sometimes to death. The life history is unusual because adults do not feed. *Ornithodoros moubata* (Murray) transmits relapsing fever in East Central and South Africa. It is a highly domestic parasite and man is probably the chief host. *O. turicata* (Duges), *O. hermsi* (Wheeler, Herm. and Meyer), *O. talaje* (Guerin-Meneville), and *O. rudis* (Koch) are important vectors of relapsing fever in the Western Hemisphere. *O. tholozani* (Lalou and Megnin) in Asia. The bite of most species that attack man produces local and systemic reactions. The bites of some species, especially *O. coriaceus* (Koch) of California and Mexico, are extremely venomous.

Ixodidae In contrast to argasids, ixodids have a scutum covering most of the dorsal surface of the



Fig 2 I od h k D m i d n f m l
bout 15 mm otu l

m le b t only the anter portu n f females
symphs, and i r r e (F g 2) They a e k w n a
th h d tick Th are thu m kedly d s
m l r The gn th oma xtend nte ly and
the larg p o les a e p o t r t the h d leg
l te d f f e q n t u g n e s t p l c e s these tick
are lly m o r l e s r d o m l y d t r i t e d
th g h o t th h t s e n o m n t Larva
ymph a d a d l t s f e d b t n e d r l d a y s
are e q u e d f n g o r g m n t The m m a t e t g
f m o s t p e c e s d p t th g r d f m l t u g b u t
th o s f i b g n B p h i l u s and a f e w t h e r s m l t
the h t The f m l e l a y a m a s c n t i g p
t 10 000 o m g g The l f e c y c l s a l l y
m p l t e d i o t y e a r s
The f m l y c t f a b o u t 11 w e l l d f e d g n
r a t h 500 p e s M a y s p e c i t r m u t d e a e

agents to ma and animals included are viruses
r k t t a e l a c t e r i p r t o o a a d t o m T r a n s
m i s s i o n s b y h t e r b y c o n t a t w i t h c r u s h e d t i c k
t i s u e s o e c r e m e t V i r s d i s a e s f m a n i n l u d e
C o l o d t i c k f e e r o f w s t e r n U n e d S t a t e s t r a s
m i t t e d b y D e m a c t o r a d e r o n S i l e s a n d R u s
s n s p i n g s u m m e r e n c e p h a l i t i s a n d r e l a t e d d i s
e E u p e a n d A s i a t r a n s m i t t e d b y I x o d e s
p e s u l c a t s S c h l z S m i m p r t a n t r e c k e t t s i l
d e e s f m a n a r e R k y M n t i n s p o t t e d f e e r
w d l y d t b u t e d i n t h e W t e r n H m i p h e e f
w h c h D n d r s o t D v a b i l s (S a y) R h i p i c e
p h a l u s s n g u i n e u s (L a t i l l e) d A m b l y o m m a
a j n e n s e (F b r i u s) a e i m p o r t a n t v e c t o
b o u t n n u l e s d e l a t e d d e a o f t h e M e d
t e r r a e a r e g o n n d A f r a t a n s m i t t e d b y R s a
g u i e u s a n d s o m e o t h e r s p e c a d Q f e v e r t h e
a g t f w h c h a l t h o u g h o c u r r i n g i n m a n y t i c k
t h r u g h t t h w l d n o t o m m o n l y t a n s m i t t e d
d i r c t l y b y t h e m T u l a r e m a f a b b t f e e r) i s a
b a c t e r i a l d e e t a s m i t t e d b y e v a l s p e c i e s f
t i c k s i n t h e N r t h r n H e m i p h e e T i c k p a r a l y s i s
b e l i e d t b e t n a u d o c u r s i n m a n y p a t
f t h e w r l d d p r o d c e d b y s e e r a l s p e c i e s o f
t i c k s d u r i n g t h e f e e d i n g p e s s.

The u m e u s t k b n e d s a e s o f a n m l s
e v a s t e c o n m i c l s s e s e s p e c i a l l y n t o p i c a l
a d u b t r o p c l r e g s E x a m p l e s a b a b e s i a s a
p r t z o a n d e a s c a u s e d b y s p e c i e s o f B a b e s a i n
c l d g B b g m t h e a g t o f t h e w i d e l y d
t r b t e d T x a s a t t l e f e r w h c h t a s m i t t e d
p r n c p a l l y b y s p e c i e s f B o p h i l u s E a s t C o a s t
f e e f A f r a n t h r p r o t o a n d s e, c u s e d
b y T h l r i a p i s c r r e d b y e e r a l s p e c i e s f
R h p e p h l u s A d f m c a r y n g d e s e, s e v
e a l p e c e e x t m e l y i m p o r t a n t p e s t o f m
d a n m a l H e a v y n f t t o o f t k s p r o d c e
r m a l l e s t o c k a n d e n d e t h f r o m
l o f b l o o d a l o S e a r t i c l e s s p e c i f i c d s
e s s a l o A C A R I A [c i k]

Jade—Jute

A name that may be applied correctly to two distinct minerals. The two true jades are jadeite and nephrite. I add a variety of other minerals are usually called jade. Idocrase is called California jade. Diopside is called Mexican jade and greenglass is called New England jade. So the Asiatic jade. The most widely distributed mineral known is nephrite. Jadeite is the valuable jadeite. The most precious gemstones to the Chinese are jade and emerald.

Nephrite Neph te n of the mph bole
gr up f rock form g m m er l nd it c u s
a ty of omb at of th m ne l t em l t
d t l t e Tr m l t e s c l m m g n e m
lum num l t e wh e e s n r p l e s t h m g
nes m m a n l t e Although ngle cry tal f
the mph bol a fr gle b ca c of two d ec
m f eas y le ge the m tely fibr s truc
tue of ph te make t x e d ly d rable l t
occu r e t f l r s m stly fl w ten
sly l d med um d d a k g e yell w
blak a d bl e gr y N phrite h ha d es f
6-64 on Mot c l a pific g ty e r 295
d r f ct d es f 161-164 On th r f a
t m t ph te gem st n h w a ngle d x
161 N phrt occ th o gho t the w ld
importa t co c l d e R s s N w Z l nd
A l ka, e l p r n e of Ch n and n mb r
of tates th western U ted St te Se AMPHI
BOLE Gem

Jadeite Jadeite th m re her hed f the two
 d m al bec ith m t ne l rs
 nd ply It b t kn w n the l y a te e
 gr n col r res mbl g th t f m ald (ed by
 m m t f hr m co id) I th qu l ty
 kno n mp r l j ad th m t l a t l
 sem t p t Wh t gre nd wh te, l ght ed
 d h o let bl h let brown a d nge lo
 lo f u d J d te l h s two d m n of
 e y l age, b t a mpa ble a d m fib o
 stru t e a tes xc pt nal t ugh s Al
 though j d e t h be f u d Cal for n a d
 C tem la, th l mpo tant s e f gem q l
 h y m t r i e s d c red th M g e g
 f ppe Burma Th h d e of j d t s 64-7
 n p e f g ly i pp m t l y 334 d t
 ref e t s a e r 166-168 f c
 tom t ly the f e l 66 lly e

The name given to the mon clin c sod um al um num pyroxene $\text{NaAl}(\text{SiO}_3)_2$ Jadeite forms green fibrous crystals that are collected in thin sections and exhibit the 87 pyroxene (110) cleavage. Jadeite is rare in metamorphic and in some septic metamorphic associated with other dense minerals such as lawsonite $\text{CaAl}_2\text{Si}_2\text{O}_7(\text{OH})$ glaucophane garnet and other minerals. Jadeite is metamorphic serpentine natrolite (a zeolite) and chlorite. Because of the presence of albite and quartz or albite and nepheline may be pairs in some jadeite specimens and the high similarity of the rock to the eclogite. It is thought that jadeite could represent high pressure modification of albite and nepheline albite + nepheline = 2 jadeite. The reaction has been produced in the laboratory at 600 C and 11 kilobars pressure or 900 C at 12 kilobars pressure. The reaction albite = jadeite + quartz occurs in the laboratory at 600 C at 7 kilobars pressure or 900 C at 15 kilobars pressure. Attempts to synthesize jadeite at lower pressures have been unsuccessful. The mineral is found in the natural occurrence of jadeite and in the presence of high temperatures. Jadeite could be the second mineral in the lower range of the earth. Jadeite is the feldspar which is the second Buena Vista Celeste Central American jadeite. Beito County California Jadeite is also a peccos to effervescence. **Se GLAUCOPHANE PYROXENE** *Isa*
HIGH PRESSURE PHENOENA JADE [CWD]

A l e m ore F l i s n f the f m l y F e l d
 m e t m s c l l e d th A m a n l e o p a d Th j a g u r
 a f u n d f o m P t a g n a n t h w a d t th U n t e d



J g F l l ght 79 m (E L P l m f l d
b k l N t l H stry M G w-Hll 1949)

[RTL]

States border and rarely in Texas Arizona and New Mexico The jaguar may attain a length of 7 ft and may weigh up to 225 lb It is essentially a jungle cat it exhibits great agility in spite of its size and is able to climb trees and to swim with facility The jaguar has been known to kill and eat humans It may eat almost any moderate sized or large animal including alligators turtles pigs tapirs horses and cattle Jaguars have beautiful valuable fur which is tawny above white below and regularly dotted with black spots most of the spots on the back and sides are open rosettes See CARNIVORA [J D B]

Jamming

Intentional generation of interfering signals by powerful transmitters as a countermeasure intended to block a communication or radar system or to impair its effectiveness appreciably Radio broadcasts or radio messages can be jammed by beaming a more powerful signal on the same frequency at the area in which reception is to be impaired using carefully selected noise modulation to give maximum impairment of intelligibility of reception When stations on many different frequencies are to be jammed or when an enemy is changing frequencies to avoid jamming the jamming transmitter is correspondingly changed in frequency or swept through a range of frequencies over and over again Similar techniques are used at radar frequencies to jam early warning and gun fire control radar systems See ELECTRONIC COUNTERMEASURES [J M R]

Japanning

The finishing of metal objects with a black baking varnish that consists primarily of a hard asphalt such as gilsonite Japanning was widely used for metal finishes before the development of modern synthetic enamels This use has largely disappeared because the same properties can be obtained with finishes based on synthetic resins that are resistant to heat and solvents and are available in a number of colors

The term is sometimes applied to coatings obtained with Oriental lacquer made from the juice of a sumac tree This also is no longer widely used See LACQUER VARNISH [F S D]

Jasper

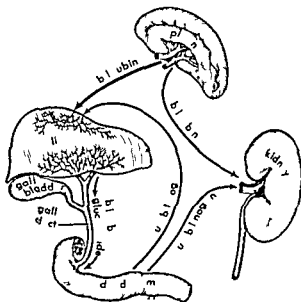
An opaque impure type of massive fine grained quartz that typically has a tile red dark brownish red brown or brownish yellow color The color of the reddish varieties of jasper is caused by admixed finely divided hematite and that of the brownish types by finely divided goethite Jasper has been used since ancient times as an ornamental stone chiefly for inlay work and as a semiprecious gem material Under the microscope jasper generally has a fine granular structure but fairly large amounts of fibrous or spherulitic silica also may be present See GEM QUARTZ

Jasper has a smooth conchoidal fracture with a dull luster The specific gravity and hardness are variable depending upon particle size and the nature and amount of the impurities present both values approach those of quartz The color of jasper often is variegated in banded potted or orbicular types Heliotrope is a translucent greenish chalcedony containing spots or streaks of opaque red jasper and jasp agate contains bands of chalcedonic silica alternating with jasper Jasperite is a metamorphic rock composed of alternating layers of jasper with black or red bands of hematite [C R]

Jaundice

The yellow staining of the skin and mucous membranes associated with the accumulation of bile pigments in the blood plasma Bile pigments are the normal result of the metabolism of blood pigments and are normally excreted from the blood into the bile by the liver An increase in circulating bile pigments can therefore come about through increased breakdown of blood (hemolytic jaundice) through lack of patency of the bile ducts (obstructive jaundice) through inability or failure of the liver to clear the plasma (parenchymal jaundice) or through combinations of these See GALL BLADDER LIVER

Metabolic pathway A graphic representation of the pathway of bile pigment metabolism in the body is shown in the illustration Metabolism of the hemoglobin from destroyed red blood cells is carried on in organs of the reticuloendothelial system such as the spleen and the resulting bilirubin is liberated to the plasma The plasma then circulates through the liver where the bilirubin is conjugated enzymatically with glucuronic acid and excreted in the bile Bile travels through the bile ducts to the small intestine whence a small amount of altered



Pathway of blood pigment metabolism

bilirubin, termed r l linog n m y b e b o bed into the pla ma. Ex es e destructi n of ed bl od cell will cau e accel r ted p odu ti n of bil rub n or l ad the ab l ty f the li er to em the pig ment f m the c r c lati n and produ e jaund c Blockage f the bil ducts will cau e elevat on of pla ma b l rub n gl cu n d level b c u e f the mabil ty to di p se of thi mat r al i the u ual h n l Damage t l r ell m v cau ele at on of the pl ma bilirubin o b l rub glucuronide o both, dep d g on th typ and s rity of liv r ll damage

Jaund e occ s whe the le l of the reulat mg p gm ts be m o h gh that they a e i ble in the kin a d m o memb n s whe e they re bo nd by a rea t n which has ot b en ident fied f the n rmal dult t tal b l rubin that is the total b l rub n d b l rub glucuronide level r s ly ex ced 0.8-1.0 mg/100 ml of pl m whe l dic ally becomes is ble when total bil ru b m pp ches 1.5 mg Se BILIRUBIN

Hemolytic jaundice De tract n f red blood c lls in th orm l h m n adult p ce ds at a rate m b h bout 0.8% f the ci culati g hemoglob n broke d w n ea h day Thi c h incr d n stat s of x es i e hem ly i up to 10-1 fold w th u o rma ng the remark ble bil ty of the liver to l b l rub f m the pl ma E n thi r te f el ri g can be x eced hower r in cert n m b d t tes i c d ng ar o s h m tyt nemias hem l es l ng f m m mp table blood t any f sev r therm l lectr c n y e o n r o duct a f h m lyt gent into the bl od st e m Sm7 i ndi e oc u s in p lmo ary f cti n i fa t a d e pecc ally p em t re infant th b l i of th l er to jug te bil rubin with glucur n d m chles tha in dults appa ly be e of the l ck f u table nzymes Jau d appears n m y i f nt h rly alt h th then d ppe r with n a few d y with de elopment of th ppr p rate zym tractu l the om m n e t t t al hepat dy f n t n th n rmed fect pp rently per ts into adult l f The w s t u l j d c mp ny g eryth obl st fct l (Rh b bes) d t the bl tv f the w s l l e t m tabol e the b l ubin result g from m r kedly acc le at d hem ly is. S BLOOD c o rrs

Obstructive jaundice Th h ghest le l of t tal b l rub n r ce n ch b r tu e j u d m h h pla m lev ls m y r h 50-60 mg/100 ml, and the k may tak n m a k ble d p y ll w h Thi d t n m be b r u ght bo t thr gh a ty f m n l th inf t h n y b e r m l d evel p m t f th ble d ct uch that o h n l l the f w of bl ex st bil n the adult b r tu t j d e mo t o r m n ly c ed fy amp t f a g l t n n u d t s B gn nd m l gn t t m r f th gall bl d d b l d cts p c e lymph odes d t r e r may f omp o f the b l d t th l s f p t a d l l d t tr

tu e may follow surgery or i flammation in the re gion A s m l r less e e e rever ible picture i seen as a hyper en sity esp n e t the adminis tration f some dr gs the m st common of which r chl rpr mazin and elated drugs and methyl test r one In the un ommon benign di order known as idiopathic familial jaundice the e ap pears to b decrea ed ab l ty to exc te conjug ted bil rub into the bil du ts gi ng n e t a con stant elevat on in the plasma b l rub n glucu onide whi h is u ually q n e sl ght

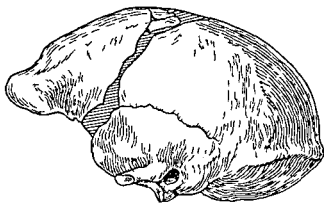
Parenchymal jaundice A w de variety of dis e e e i ts in which part f th jau dice can be a c unted f by a tual damage to liver cells with nse quent dec e e in their ab l ty to conjug te bilirub n and excrete the gluc r n de causing an le at n of both fr cti n n the plasma This group omp s s uch ondu tions a inflammations f the li er i cludi g viral hepati Weils disea e syph l s par stic nfestations and b ct al nfect n to ic co d t s in lud ng pos ming with a wide a ty of o gan c and inorg nic com pou d nd i a wide sence the to em s associ ated with ev re sy tem c d i eases tum rou co dit n including primary hepat c t mo s a d tho e metast tic f m other org ns and other miscella n u c nd t n s the mo t c m m n of whi ch is on ge ta e heart failure Some of the e co d t n s ha e an added c mp nent of ob tru t e r hemo lyt e jaund ce which confus th p ct re f r th l i c an

Symptomatology The app ara ce and symptom tol gy f subject suffe i g from j und ce ary f m a t a d pe d ng n the u d l y ng d e e process produci g the jau d e P tients w th hemolyt e jau dic fo in ta ce will u ually ha e n ccompany ng nem a th e w th bstruct e jaund c will c m m nly n te that their tool are n t brown be a e of la k of ble p gme t (ch l c tool) whil bil rub n glu u de will appe th ur ne d cau e it to t m dark P u t w th mal gn n es will demonst t the u l y l g n of weight los a d a m a whe l tho e with nll m m t ry o d t ns will c m m nly h fever h lls d pro t at on See PIGMENTATION [R B H]

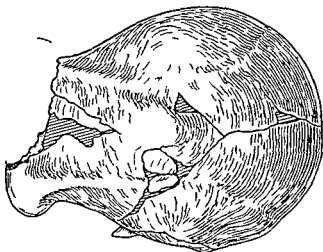
Java man

The most pr m m e know f rm of man and one f th ld t d n g prob bly from the late lowe a d e ly m d d l Plei t n corre ponding t the F r t l tergl c l and S nd Glacial phas s f th Northern H m s ph The fir t p e m disc ed at Tr n l n t al Ja a by Eug e e Dubois n 1890-1892, n ted of skull c p femu mandib le f g m nt and few t eth (the l t n w a gned t angut n) D boi d c r b ed these un der th n me P th c th opus e ctus as th fist e mple f ry pr m m t man th wa m le i a thr p l g l d ry a d d bat Othe k ll p and jaw fragment we fo nd s oc ated with both th Djeti nd Trin l faun of

Java in 1936-1939 chiefly by G H R von Koenigswald No implements are known from these beds The thigh bone indistinguishable from that of modern man indicates a fully developed posture for upright walking The brain case is extremely thick with a cranial capacity averaging about 850 cm³ (modern man 1450 cm³ gorilla 500 cm³)



l t al v w



d s l v w

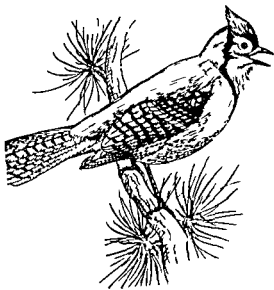
Cran m of *Pithecanthropus erectus* H aft von Koenigswald (Courtesy Ca g l t t n of W h g t a d i M F A h l y M o t a g u A l t d u c t o Physical Anth ology 2d ed Charles C Thomas 1951)

The tooth row is long the lower molars totaling 40 mm An exceptional feature is the presence of a diastema (precanine gap) in the upper to the row related in anthropoid ape to the reception of the projecting lower canine this feature has been found in no other hominid including *Australopithecus* However the canine teeth themselves are not projecting or nonhominid in nature See FOULMAN [W H II]

Bibliography F Weidenreich Giant early man from Java and South China *Am Museum Anth op Papers* 40(1) 1-134 1945

Jay

Any of several smaller members of the family Corvidae differing from other crows in smaller size and in more brilliant plumage Various pe-



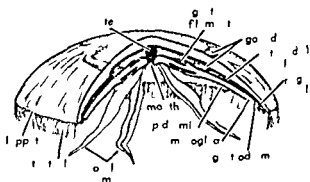
The bluejay *Cyanocitta cristata* length to 12 in (From E L Palmer *Fieldbook of Natural History* McGraw-Hill 1949)

cies occur in both North and tropical America and in the Palearctic Most common is the bluejay *Cyanocitta cristata* widely distributed and abundant over most of the United States east of the Rocky Mountains and especially characteristic of the eastern deciduous forests The jays are bold noisy birds that usually travel in small flocks They feed upon various seeds berries nuts and insects and on nestling birds and birds eggs See CROW PASSERIFORMES [J B B]

Jellyfish

A large group of common marine animals of the phylum Coelenterata mostly of the class Scyphozoa There are also a few usually small jellyfish including a single fresh water species which belongs to the class Hydrozoa

The life history of different groups varies considerably In a typical form such as the common jellyfish *Aurelia aurita* the adults are similar but the sexes are separate The zygote develops into a small ciliated larva the planula This swims about for a time then settles to the bottom and transforms into a hydroidlike animal the scyphistoma



The jellyfish *Aurelia aurita* diagrammatic (From T L Storer L Usig *General Zoology* 3d ed McGraw-Hill 1957)

be [u] t t : a length f b ut 12 mm a d th n
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Jet (gemology)

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Jet flow

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Fig 1. Nozzle

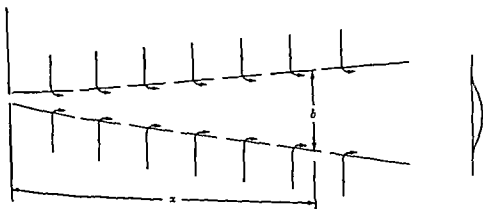
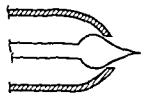


Fig 2. Fluid jet in a 1 sam R d m d m

and to allow penetration of the gas into the stream. At length the jet breaks into a spray.

When a jet issues into fluid of the same density the fluid is brought or inducted into the jet (Fig. 2). The jet spreads at a linear rate with $b = \pi/8$. Turbulent shear forces reduce the jet velocity within the central cone and equal turbulent shear forces act to increase velocity in the outer portions of the jet. The momentum of the jet must remain substantially constant in the axial direction because no forces act external to the jet. [V.L.S.]

Jet fuel

Requirements for jet fuels have changed as rapidly as the design of the jet engine. In spite of simplicity in principle the specifications are rigid. The fuels must ignite easily under all conditions; they must burn steadily without blowout or flashback and cleanly with minimal smoking or depositing; they must spray well. The heat content must be high to minimize the airborne weight of fuel and container; the vapor pressure and freezing point must be low.

These requirements are met by paraffinic kerosene or by a mixture of kerosene with gasoline fraction so chosen as to keep aromatic content below 25%. A typical jet fuel is a gasoline-kerosene mixture of boiling range 200–500°F and Reid vapor pressure 2–3 lb. See KEROSENE. [M.S.D.]

Jet propulsion

The propulsion of a body by means of force resulting from discharge of a fluid jet. This driving force is the reaction to force exerted against the working fluid in giving it momentum in the jet stream. Turbojets, ramjets, and rockets are among the most widely used jet propulsion engines.

Jet nozzles. In each of these propulsion engines a jet nozzle converts potential energy of the working fluid into kinetic energy. Hot high-pressure gas escapes through the nozzle, expanding in volume as it drops in pressure and temperature, thus gaining rearward velocity and momentum. This process is governed by the laws of conservation of mass, energy, and momentum, and the pressure-volume-temperature relationships of the gas state equation. See FLUID DYNAMICS; JET FLOW; NOZZLE.

For propulsion systems in which the pressure of the working fluid is not more than approximately twice the absolute ambient pressure a converging nozzle is used (Fig. 1a). The mass flow from the nozzle in terms of conditions at sections 1 and 2 is

$$m = A_2 p_1 \sqrt{2gJC_p T_1} \sqrt{\left(\frac{p_2}{p_1}\right)^{2\gamma} - \left(\frac{p_2}{p_1}\right)^{(\gamma+1)/\gamma}} \quad (1)$$

and the velocity of the jet leaving the nozzle is

$$v_2 = \sqrt{2gJC_p T_1} \sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{p_2}{p_1}\right)^{(\gamma-1)/\gamma}} \quad (2)$$

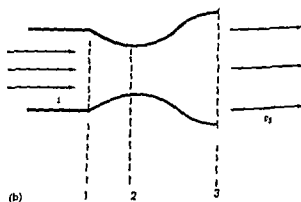
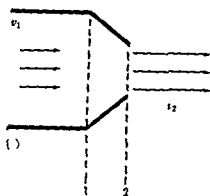


Fig. 1. Populson nozzles: (a) Low-pressure converging nozzle; (b) High-pressure converging-diverging nozzle.

where m = mass flow, slug/sec

A = cross-sectional area, ft²

ρ = density, slug/ft³

J = work equivalent of heat, ft lb/Btu

T = total temperature, R

C_p = specific heat at constant pressure, Btu/(°F)(lb)

γ = ratio of specific heats

p = static pressure, lb/in.²

v = velocity, ft/sec

Maximum flow occurs when

$$p_2 = p_1 \left(\frac{2}{\gamma + 1} \right)^{(\gamma-1)/\gamma} = p^* \quad (3)$$

This is the critical pressure at which flow velocity in the nozzle throat is equal to local sound velocity. For air and most combustion gas mixtures

$$p^* \approx 0.5p_1$$

For propulsion systems in which the working fluid pressure is high compared to ambient pressure a converging-diverging nozzle is used (Fig. 1b). In this nozzle the working fluid continues to expand from the critical throat pressure to ambient pressure at section 3 with a further increase in velocity beyond the sonic throat velocity.

$$v_3 = \sqrt{2gJC_p T_1} \sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{p_3}{p_1}\right)^{(\gamma-1)/\gamma}} \quad (4)$$

Turbojet. The turbojet is an aircraft propulsion engine used in aircraft. Through the engine a few hundred to 20,000 lb of air more. The engine operates best at high subsonic or supersonic flight speed where the high velocity jet achieves good propulsion efficiency. See PROPULSION.

The turbojet has an engine (see BRAYTON CYCLE). Air enters the inlet diffuser and is compressed adiabatically. The air is then rotated in the compressor (Fig. 2). Heat added by burning fuel in the combustor is the energy to drive the turbine which drives the compressor. The turbine is connected to the compressor through the shaft. The turbine converts the remaining energy of the gas stream into propulsion power (see TURBOJET). In some turbojet motors, heat is added in an afterburner following the turbine to increase propulsion power output.

The inlet diffuser decelerates the relative velocity of the air, increasing its pressure in a position where the nozzle expands it.

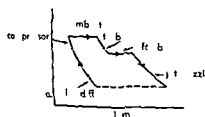


Fig. 2 Turbojet engine diagram

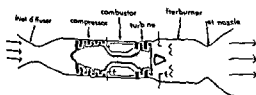


Fig. 3 Simplified schematic diagram of turbojet

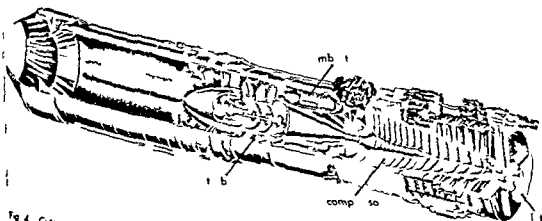


Fig. 4 Cutaway view of turbojet engine (G. I. Elmer)

(Fig. 3). For supersonic speed a converging diverging passage is required (see SUPERSONIC DIFFUSER). The diffuser throat area may be varied mechanically to match requirements of varying flight speed.

The axial flow compressor shown has alternate rows of rotating and stationary blades which compress the air further (Fig. 4). The individual action is like that of an airplane wing in deflection as it passes over it. They are arranged so that the air is decelerated and then accelerated. The air is then accelerated through the turbine, which is connected to the rotor drum and the compressor.

In the combustor jet fuel, like kerosene or petroleum, is sprayed and burned. As the fuel is compressed or discharged into the combustor space through a fuel valve, the heat of the combustion is used to drive the turbine. They serve to mix the air and fuel and to increase the combustion and to cool the line which protects the turbine combustion casing from the heat of the flame.

The turbine nozzle directs high velocity gas stream against the blades mounted on wheels. The gas is turned in the blades and by this momentum has gained energy to the wheel. The wheel may be evaluated by the tag in engine connected by a direct shaft to the compressor (Fig. 5).

In the turbojet engine, the section channel are mounted downstream of the inlet passage. These channels produce eddies in the gas stream to promote turbulent burning and prevent blowout at high altitude. A cooled heat metal line protects the afterburner from overheating. See AFTERBURNER TURBOJET.

For supersonic flight applications a converging jet nozzle of fixed dimensions is used. For supersonic flight a converging-diverging jet nozzle is used. The dimensions of the throat and exit may be adjusted to match the requirements of varying flight speed and altitude.

As a result of the gas reduction by an aerodynamic means and gas taking power from

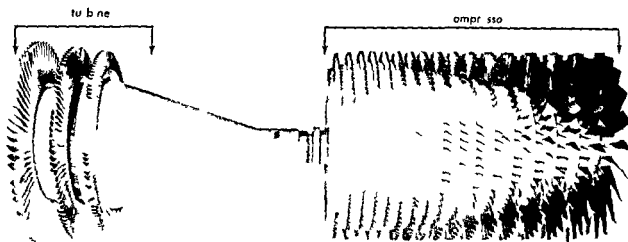


Fig. 5 Compressor and turbine shafts assembled

the compressor turbine shaft. These accessories include fuel and lube oil pumps, tachometer, and in some installations an electric starter generator.

An engine control system senses air pressure and temperature from the inlet diffuser, rotor speed and throttle setting. It computes from these by mechanical or electric analog means the required fuel rates and meters fuel flow to the combustor and afterburner. The system senses gas temperature entering the turbine and in the afterburner from which it operates to limit fuel rates so as to prevent overheating or over speeding. Engine characteristics representative of a modern turbojet are given in Table 1.

Table 1 Characteristics of medium sized turbojet

| Characteristics | Weight at lift | Weight at burn |
|---------------------------------|-------------------|-------------------|
| Weight lb | 3 600 | 2 900 |
| Length in | 00 | 110 |
| Diameter in | 38 | 37 |
| Compressor ratio | 17 | 17 |
| Turbine stage | 3 | 3 |
| Take-off thrust lb | 15 500 | 11 000 |
| Take-off SFC | 0 | 0.8 |
| Best cruise thrust lb | 600 | 500 |
| Best SFC | 1.0 | 0.9 |
| (Mach 0.9 at 3 000 ft altitude) | | |
| Military thrust lb | 6 000 | |
| Military SFC | 3 | |
| (Mach 0.15 000 ft altitude) | | |

Specific fuel consumption per pound of thrust per hour

Ramjet The ramjet is the simplest air breathing propulsion system and is used principally in guided missiles (Fig. 6). It travels at high velocity compressing air in its inlet diffuser, burning fuel in the air, and discharging it through a jet nozzle. There are no rotating compressor and turbine in the ramjet. The ram air pressure ratio achieved by

its forward velocity are high enough for efficient operation on the Brayton cycle. However, the ramjet must be accelerated up to operating speeds by other means. In most missile applications this is accomplished by a rocket-powered booster stage.

Characteristics representative of a modern ramjet are

| | |
|--------------------------------|------|
| Weight lb | 1000 |
| Length in | 150 |
| Diameter in | 36 |
| Thrust lb | 2000 |
| Specific fuel consumption | 2.0 |
| (Mach 4 at 75 000 ft altitude) | |

The ramjet is usually designed to cruise within a fairly narrow speed range. The combustor is similar to a turbojet afterburner with fuel injector, V-channel flame holders, and a covered inlet for heat insulation. Control and accessories housed in the bullet nose of the inlet are powered by a very small high-speed turbine driven by ram air bled from the inlet. See RAMJET, also PULSERJET.

Liquid propellant rocket engine The liquid propellant rocket engine is a propulsion system used to power missile and space vehicles. It is used primarily to accelerate a load to high velocity and to do this deliver a large thrust for a relatively short time interval.

Liquid fuel (usually a hydrocarbon resembling kerosene) and oxidizer (usually liquid oxygen) are pumped from tanks to a fuel injector which sprays them into a combustion chamber in which they burn. The hot burning gases escape through a jet nozzle, leaving at very high velocity (Fig. 7). The reaction force is balanced on the nozzle wall and the injector head are transmitted to the vehicle. Rocket engines remain time-stored by mounting the entire engine in gimbal.

Fuel and oxidizer pumps have high pressure centrifugal impellers driven through planetary reduction

A large engine such as the first stage of a 1500 mile ballistic missile might have the general characteristics

| Propellant | Potassium perchlorate polyurethane and additives |
|--------------------|--|
| Length in | 220 |
| Diameter in | 50 |
| Gross weight lb | 20 000 |
| Average thrust lb | 80 000 |
| Burn time sec | 60 |
| Over all I_p sec | 230 |

Propellant combinations are selected to contain as much fuel and oxidizer and as little inert substance as possible. As with liquid propellants combinations with low molecular weights are preferred because they result in greater specific impulse for a given energy release. The propellant mixture must burn at a relatively slow uniform rate certain inhibitors are added to control this.

There are now in use a variety of propellants of two general classes. Double base types contain nitrocellulose and nitroglycerin plus additives for stability and to control combustion rates. Composite types contain ammonium or potassium perchlorate granules imbedded in a rubberlike hydrocarbon compound. See also ELECTROMAGNETIC PROPULSION [D.C.]

Bibliography J. V. Casamassa and R. D. Bent *Jet Aircraft Power Systems* 2d ed. 1957. C. W. Smith *Aircraft Gas Turbines* 1956. G. P. Sutton *Rocket Propulsion Elements* 2d ed. 1956. M. J. Zucrow *Aircraft and Missile Propulsion* vol. 2 1958.

Jet stream

A relatively narrow fast moving wind current flanked by more slowly moving current. Jet streams are observed principally in the zone of preailing westerlies above the lower troposphere and in most cases reach maximum intensity with regard both to speed and to concentration near the tropopause. At a given time the position and intensity of the jet stream may significantly influence aircraft operations because of the great speed of the wind at the jet core and the rapid spatial variation of wind speed in its vicinity. Lying in the zone of maximum temperature contrast between cold air masses to the north and warm air masses to the south the position of the jet stream on a given day usually coincides in part with the region of greatest temperature in the lower troposphere though portions of the jet stream occur over regions which are entirely devoid of cloud.

Characteristics The specific characteristics of the jet stream depend upon whether the reference is to a single instantaneous flow pattern or to an averaged circulation pattern such as an averaged circulation pattern with respect to time or averaged with respect both to time and to longitude.

If the winter circulation pattern on the Northern Hemisphere is averaged with respect to both time and longitude a westerly jet stream is found at an elevation of about 13 kilometers (km) near latitude 25. The speed of the averaged wind at the jet core is about 148 km/hr (80 knot). In summer this jet is displaced poleward to a position near latitude 42. It is found at an elevation of about 12 km with a maximum speed of about 56 km/hr (30 knots). In both seasons a speed equal to one-half the peak value is found approximately 15° of latitude south 20° of latitude north and 5-10 km above and below the location of the jet core itself.

If the winter circulation is averaged only with respect to time it is found that both the intensity and the latitude of the westerly jet stream vary from one sector of the Northern Hemisphere to another. The most intense portion with a maximum speed of about 185 km/hr (100 knots) lies over the extreme western portion of the North Pacific Ocean at about latitude 22. Lesser maxima of about 157 km/hr (85 knots) are found at latitude 35° over the east coast of North America and at latitude 21° over the eastern Sahara and over the Arabian Sea. In summer maxima are found at latitude 46° over the Great Lakes region at latitude 40° over the western Mediterranean Sea and at latitude 35° over the central North Pacific Ocean. Peak speeds in the regions range between 14 and 83 km/hr (40 and 45 knots). The degree of concentration of the jet stream is measured by the distance from the core to the position at which the speed is one-half the core speed is only slightly greater than the degree of concentration of the jet stream averaged with respect to time and longitude. At both seasons and at all longitudes the elevation of the jet streams varies between 11 and 14 km.

Variations On individual days there is a considerable latitudinal variability of the jet stream particularly in the western North American and western European sectors. It is principally for this reason that the time averaged jet stream is not well defined in the region. There is also a great day to day variability in the intensity of the jet stream throughout the hemisphere. On a given winter day speeds in the jet core may exceed 310 km/hr (200 knot) for a distance of several hundred miles along the direction of the wind. Lateral wind shears in the direction normal to the jet stream frequently attain values as high as 100 knots per 300 nautical miles (185 km/hr/556 km) to the right of the direction of the jet stream current and as high as 100 knot per 100 nautical mile (185 km/hr/185 km) to the left. Vertical shear below and above the jet core are often as large as 20 knot/1000 ft (37 km/305 m).

Daily jet streams are predominantly westerly but occasionally easterly and occasionally jet streams may occur in mid or high latitude when ridges and troughs in the normal westerly current are particularly pronounced. In unusually intense cases of anomalous jet occurrence at particular latitudes.

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ST OPTIC ATMOSPHERE GEOSTROPHIC WIND
STORM VORTEX. [F S]

Jet velocity

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P r o p e r t y

Jetty

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i n g R I V E R E n g i n e e r i n g [E J Q]

Jig fixture and die design

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Jig and fixture construction F b t d s t e l
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e d e d c a t l s n j i g d f i x t u r s t r u c t u r n
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b u h g k u r k t n d o t h l o w m e t i n g p o i t a l
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O e d e b l e p a c t t h e t h e f i t j g f i x
t u e a e s o f o p t s e a t e l o t g p t
n t h p a r t n t h f o r m f i m l l e d r i s o r h l
w h h c n b e e d n f e q u e n t o p r t i Th
m l t i n g p t h l d b e u e d f s m a n y
o p e t n a p a b l e

C l m p g m y d f o r m t h p r t i f the loc u n g
p t s r o t e l e d d a t g e o u l y L o t i n g
p o t h u l d b p e d f a p a r t s t h p r t
d n p m t d b e s m a l l a p b l n d
i n g the n e d f d e q u a t e u p p t and n t
p t e d w Th e b t t n s o r m a s s p a d d e t e m n e
p l a a d t o p p d t r m e l o c t n s
w i t h n t h t p l e (F i g 1)

Th u i f t w o r m e t r i g h t p s n t d i e
b l f l o c t g f m h l e s b e c u e l i g h t d i
m e i l t i t n b t w e t l e s w l l m k t d i f

A large engine such as the first stage of a 1500 mile ballistic missile might have these general characteristics

| Propellant | Potassium perchlorate polyurethane and additives |
|--------------------|--|
| Length in | 220 |
| Diameter in | 50 |
| Gross weight lb | 20 000 |
| Average thrust lb | 80 000 |
| Burn time sec | 60 |
| Over all I_p sec | 230 |

Propellant combinations are selected to contain as much fuel and oxidizer and as little inert substance as possible. As with liquid propellants combinations with low molecular weights are preferred because they result in greater specific impulse for a given energy release. The propellant mixture must burn at a relatively slow uniform rate; certain inhibitors are added to control this.

There are now in use a variety of propellants of two general classes. Double base types contain nitrocellulose and nitroglycerin plus additives for stability and to control combustion rates. Composite types contain ammonium or potassium perchlorate granules imbedded in a rubberlike hydrocarbon compound. See also ELECTROMAGNETIC PROPULSION [p.c.]

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Jet stream

A relatively narrow fast moving wind current flanked by more slowly moving current. Jet streams are observed principally in the zone of preailing westerlies above the lower troposphere and in most cases reach maximum intensity with regard both to speed and to concentration near the tropopause. At a given time the position and intensity of the jet stream may significantly influence aircraft operations because of the great speed of the wind at the jet core and the rapid spatial variation of wind speed in its vicinity. Lying in the zone of maximum temperature contrast between cold air masses to the north and warm air masses to the south the position of the jet stream on a given day usually coincides in part with the regions of greatest storminess in the lower troposphere though portions of the jet stream occur over regions which are entirely devoid of cloud.

Characteristics The specific characteristics of the jet stream depend upon whether the reference is to a single instantaneous flow pattern or to an averaged circulation pattern such as one averaged with respect to time or averaged with respect both to time and to longitude.

If the winter circulation pattern on the Northern Hemisphere is averaged with respect to both time and longitude a westerly jet stream is found at an elevation of about 13 kilometers (km) near latitude 25. The speed of the averaged wind at the jet core is about 148 km/hr (80 knots). In summer this jet is displaced poleward to a position near latitude 42. It is found at an elevation of about 12 km with a maximum speed of about 56 km/hr (30 knots). In both seasons a speed equal to or half the peak value is found approximately 15° latitude south, 20° of latitude north and 5-10 km above and below the location of the jet core itself.

If the winter circulation is averaged only with respect to time it is found that both the intensity and the latitude of the westerly jet stream vary from one sector of the Northern Hemisphere to another. The most intense portion with a maximum speed of about 185 km/hr (100 knots) lies over the extreme western portion of the North Pacific Ocean at about latitude 22. Lesser maxima of about 157 km/hr (85 knots) are found at latitude 35° over the east coast of North America and at latitude 21° over the eastern Sahara and over the Arabian Sea. In summer maxima are found at latitude 46° over the Great Lakes region at latitude 10° over the western Mediterranean Sea and at latitude 35° over the central North Pacific Ocean. Peak speeds in the three regions range between 74 and 83 km/hr (40 and 45 knots). The degree of concentration of the jet streams is measured by the distance from the core to the position at which the speed is one half the core speed; only slightly greater than the degree of concentration of the jet stream averaged with respect to time and longitude. At both seasons and at all longitudes the elevation of the jet streams varies between 11 and 14 km.

Variations On individual days there is a considerable latitudinal variability of the jet stream particularly in the western North American and western European sectors. It is principally for this reason that the time averaged jet stream is not well defined in the core region. There is also a great day to day variability in the intensity of the jet stream throughout the hemisphere. On a given winter day the speed in the jet core may exceed 310 km/hr (170 knots) for a distance of several hundred miles along the direction of the wind. Lateral wind shear in the direction normal to the jet stream frequently attains values as high as 100 knots per 300 nautical miles (18 km/hr/55° km) to the right of the direction of the jet stream current and as high as 100 knots per 300 nautical miles (185 km/hr/185 km) to the left. Vertical shears below and above the jet core are often as large as 70 knots/1000 ft (37 km/30 m).

Daily jet stream maps predominantly westerly but not necessarily westerly and occasionally jet streams may occur in mid- or high latitudes when ridges and troughs in the general westerly current are particularly pronounced, or when unusual intensifications and anticyclones occur at upper levels.

In the cy of d ta o th Southern Hem sphere
p eel d a d aled d cript n f the j t r am
b t ut ppea s th t the majo ha acte istic r m
ble q te el ely th f the j t tre m on the
N rth r n H m ph ere The day to-day variabil ty of
the jet tream h e e appear to b les o the
Southern Hem ph ere

It appe rs that an te se j t t am c u t
h gh lat tude on both hemi ph re s th w nt r
t atosph re at elevat ns above 70 km The dat
a s tabl h e r e i offic nt t perm t the
p re e locat o or deta l d de e ption of th
ph me n See AIR MASS AIR WAVES UPPER
SYNOPTIC AT IOSPHERE GEOSTROPHIC W I D
STORM VORTEX [F S]

Jet velocity

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th mlt r m s r t th m s f ful b n d
b ng glecte d nd that the hau t ga es e ex
panded t mb t p es u i the nozzl Und r
these d t the thru t f an eng e d re tly
proport n l t the fl w rate a d to the diff r
ence bet ee th jet d hcle elocities th t
i gre test at ze o flight spe d and h mes
then th flight speed s the s me th jet v l c
ty

Both e gne pow d efficien y a p op r
t l t the produ t f thru t m flight v loc ty
Th i e both p er and effie y a e r t
r th flight peed a d also z wh n flight p d
eq al j t loc ty Between these l mit t i
r u of j t velocity t flight p d th t wll g e
m ximum p w a d effie y d j t el ty
becomes fa t in the de g of e g x hau t
nozzles. I bson t bojet j t loc ty can be
e t lled t some xt t by ary g the op n a a
f the e h ut ozzle by any of eral range
ments. Th clam h l i n e ly form f abl
n zle. I mult ple l at de gns a m
ent lat r n l plug al ued t ary z z l
re

I p a u e n t b jet with aft b r n a
mple co ergent va ble a ha t n z z l
w d m t nt l the turb ha k p re i
th t j p pe th n e pt m z e h u t j t eff y
fa t bojet w th t sterb ne ble re
a zle m be ued t g u f t int al g ne
d m i th p e s f s ch ar at f flight
d i as t m h ng f t d O
p rsona ng f lly ble n e ge t d
gent zles re ued t ptim both t r n l
eng n d t d j t effi n y
I th n br th ng ock t y l the abo
d npt d n t pply th t f ock t i
d pnd t f flight peed R t t t t m
e thru t d ectly pr port t n z z l e
t at h w ty pl p e s t m t m S
Pa vel l

[11]

Jetty

An art ficial b r r r t iver m th a d harbor n
tr c s t deff ct and reg l te r r flow and tidal
currents p r t ula ly in reas where l ttoral d ft
c u es formation of bars ac chan el entra ce
Jetties a e lult ingly o i pairs curv d or
t ight to prevent l tto al dr ft acr s cha nel
a d t incr as velo ty f tid l fl w which keep
the chann l pen J t t s re con tucted to unt
natural conditio a d ften r emb l breakwat r s
altho gh s l d he t pile wall of timber c c te
a d t e l h e b e n u e d e ten ely A fine ex m
ple is the 4¹/₂ mile jetty t the mouth f the
Columb R e O e l S e COASTAL ENG EER
ING RIVER E C I EERING [E J Q]

Jig fixture and die design

The pl nn g of tools fo u e in m king production
parts fign po it on part fo mach n g p atio
s h d lli g m lling r m g and bo i g and
they phys ally guide the cutt ng t o l s Fixt es
p sit p t fo mach ing weld ng r as embly
pe at ns but permit cutt ng t o l to find the
wn path Dies are tool wh ch when mo nt ed in a
p es prod ce p r t by p ch g a d f r m i g

Jig and fixture construction Fabric ted t el
tr rel ed afte wld g d w th hardened
teel sert at th w ar po t h g erally super
eded ast n s jig and f ture c t ct on
Alumi m and mag e um are u d f m ny p
pli t ns be s th y a e l ghter h a die and
l s c tly t f b cuate nd m ch n When la ge
part r n l d uch a th e n t m b l o
raft du trees th poxy resins reinforced
with file gla tle u table mat l can b
u ed in c ju ct n with h dene d l n t a d
bu h s k k t nd oth l w melting po t al
loys r ued wh r d ffic lt t u mu t be du
pli ted

L ari g meth d Th ac u cies bta ned by
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with whi h part a b c n t ntly p it ned
in the f i t d ub q nt jig f i t r The d
n n n l e te of th part u l l s fact
On d s bl pr ct i t h th f i t jig r f i
tur n e res f p at t l cati g p ts
on th pa t n the f m f m lled f ce r h le
which a b d i b q t t pe at Th
same loc ti g p s ho l d be ed fo a many
p rat a p ble

Cl p g m y def rm the part f the lo t ng
p ts re t l t d d t geo ly Lo t ng
p ts h uld b p ed s f apa t s the part
design p nt d be a m l l s po bl d
er ng th need f deq at pp t nd ant
p t d we Th e butt r m l l p d det rm ne
a plan a d top o p n d te min loc ti
w th n th t pl ne (Fig 1)

Th f two m e t a ght p t d s
bl f lo t ng f om h les b ca l ght d
m l t betw en h les w l l m k t d f

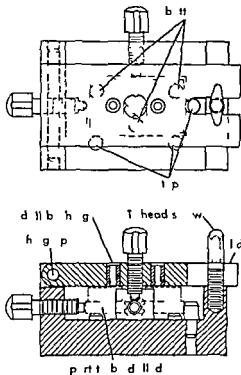


Fig 1 Buttons and stops locate part in drill jig

difficult to load or unload the part. The most common method is to use one round pin and one diamond or elliptical pin (Fig 2).

Self-centering devices must be used when it is necessary to locate centrally from two surfaces that can vary. When locating round parts it is preferable to work from hardened V-shaped locators. The angle of the V should be 90°. Sight holes should be provided to permit the operator to observe visually whether or not the part is down on stops and buttons. Where practical, multiple station jigs and fixtures should be made in such a way that parts can be loaded while others are being machined. The cost of loading or unloading parts is often greater than the machining cost.

Clamping. The clamping arrangement should be simple. Clamping pressure is applied over or between the pads or buttons and standard vices are adapted as machining fixtures where practical. Machining is done toward the fixed jaw. Standard air cylinder are used. If more than three supports in one plane are necessary, all in excess of three should be adjustable. Where a wrench must be used, all nuts should be standardized. Large hand knobs ensure ease of operation and cam-type clamps are usually faster and more positive than other methods.

Tool guides. In jig tool guide consists of bushing that guide drill, reamers and boring bars. American Standard Association size should be used when possible. Bushing normally extend as close to the part as practical to assure accuracy of hole location and to eliminate chip tangle within the jig.

The use of slip-removable bushing in hardened liner permit secondary operation such as tapping, reaming and counterboring. Where accuracy

demands reamers may also be guided in bushings either by pilot or by their cutting edges.

Tool guides in fixture are limited to set pieces for establishing a relationship between the cutting tools and the fixture. The set pieces are permanently located on the fixture and clearance is allowed between the set pieces and the cutting tools. A feeler gauge the thickness of the clearance is then used to locate and set the cutting tools.

Chip control. During drilling chips are either brought out through the bushing by allowing zero clearance between the bushing and the part or permitted to stay in the jig by allowing sufficient clearance for that purpose. The former method is the more desirable but if tolerances are not critical and the chips are discontinuous wear on the bushings can be reduced by the latter method. To compromise between zero and ample clearance create the disadvantages of both with none of their advantages.

Jigs and fixtures are designed with sufficient openings for chips to be removed by gravity, coolant flow, brush or air blast. Dust collectors are used to collect dry grinding chip or chips of non-metallic or toxic materials.

Safety. Practice dictates the use of 3/4-13-in. or larger tapped holes for eyebolts in all jigs or fixtures weighing 50 lb or more and the removal of all sharp corners that could injure operators.

Stamping dies. Dies produce parts either by pressing the part material in, shear until fracture occurs or by stretching the part material beyond the yield point where it takes a permanent set but not beyond the rupture point where it breaks. Dies using the former method include blanking, piercing, cut off and lancing dies and those employing the latter method include drawing, bending, embossing.

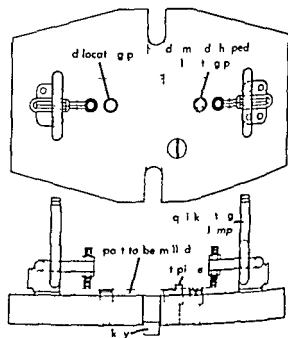


Fig 2 Round pin located with diamond pins. Part as shown allows part to be loaded easily in millig.

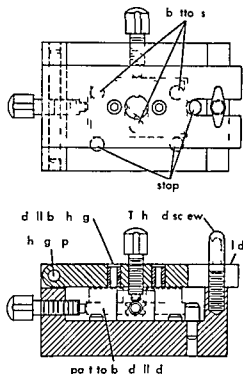


Fig 1 Buttons and stops locate part

difficult to load or unload the part. The most common method is to use one round pin and one diamond or elliptical pin (Fig 2).

Self-centering devices must be used when it is necessary to locate centrally from two surfaces that can vary. When locating round parts it is preferable to work from hardened V-shaped locators. The angle of the V should be 90°. Sight holes should be provided to permit the operator to observe visually whether or not the part is down on stops and buttons. Where practical, multiple station jigs and fixtures should be made in such a way that parts can be loaded while others are being machined. The cost of loading or unloading parts is often greater than the machining cost.

Clamping. The clamping arrangement should be simple. Clamping pressure is applied over or between the pads or buttons, and standard vices are adapted as machining fixtures where practical. Machining is done toward the fixed jaw. Standard air cylinders are used. If more than three supports in one plane are necessary, all in excess of three should be adjustable. Where a wrench must be used, all nuts should be standardized. Large hand knurlers ensure ease of operation, and cam-type clamps are usually faster and more positive than other methods.

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Jigs and fixtures are designed with sufficient openings for chips to be removed by gravity, coolant flow, brush, or air blast. Dust collectors are used to collect dry grinding chips or chips of non-metallic or toxic materials.

Safety. Practice dictates the use of 1/2-13-in. or larger tapped holes for eyebolts in all jigs or fixtures weighing 50 lb or more, and the removal of all sharp corners that could injure operator.

Stamping dies. Dies produce parts either by shearing the part material in shear until fracture occurs, or by stretching the part material beyond the yield point where it takes a permanent set but not beyond the rupture point where it breaks. Dies using the former method include blanking, piercing, cut-off, and lancing dies, and those employing the latter method include drawing, bending, embossing,

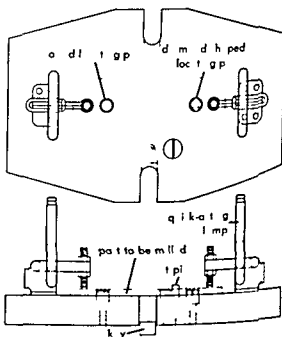


Fig 2 Round pin paired with diamond pin locates part and allows part to be loaded readily in mill

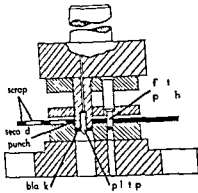


Fig 3 Progress of forming a part in a die. The diagram shows a cross-section of a die with a punch and a workpiece. Labels include 'scrap', 'seco d punch', 'bl k', 'p l t p', 'f i', and 'p h'.

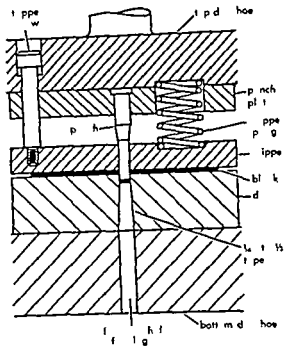
and forming d. Any pr to l comb natio f tl above r oth perat an be ncl d d e de and a he p formed e the mltaneou l r m tps u g p o g r e t p e d e (Fig 3)

D nst ut Co et al tamping de ar mposed f the fll w gma p r t th de setc ung f t p a d bott m hoe gu de p n a d b h g s th p ch which a th male utting r f r m g m m b r the d which the f m l e utting r f r m g m m b t t p p th t r e m e th p r t f o m the p ch d e g g e s to locat th p a r t r m a t r a l and b l n k h l d e th t r e m r i k l e d c a e e flow of m a t r i l m d a w i n g (Fig 4)

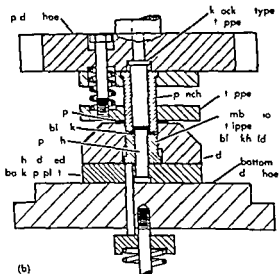
D i l c t Th d type i t e d f a j b i d t r m n e d b p i d g n d e o m i d r a t i n a h th n m b e r f p e c e s t b p o d u e d i f a l t r n a t m t h o d f p o d c t i o a d m n t e n f t h t o o l t e l f

V r y l w t v i t l b e l p a r t t l e n f t e n j t y p l t y p e s i d e s h t e e l l e d e s o p l w e l d e s f r c u t t g p e r t o n a d p l t b b d e s f f m g p e t n s M o t p p l t o i o l i g m d a t h g h a t t q u d e e m p l y g h d e d t o o l t e e l L a g e c t i t c a m e t m e s j u t i v t h e h g h c o s t f d m d f m t g t c a r b d W e l l d e g n e d a d l l b l t t g s t e c b d d a n t r m i l g l m e f t m l v c t p a r t t h g h s p e d w i t h l t t l e h a p e n i g p a i

M a t r i a l f t m p g A y m t i l f t e r th the p h a d d d w h c h w i l l n o t h a t t h m p t m y h t p d b l n k e d n d l d a g b d g a n d f r m i g o p t i n d c t i l y i t h p m q t S p g b k a d d l r m t i l d n g h u n g e n m a t e r i a l t h i k e r o c r i g d g t h f r m g p t i a e t a k i t d e t p M a t l u d t h r i u n d d l l y h e d p n t r p r l f r m S t p c l e d m t r l m k e p b l t h f e e m n t u l l y p e t c l w t h h d m t e n l e s f i l l y t m t e d t p s p d d S t m p g t l c O b t b l e u b d t n g d p e d g t h p r t m t e l



(a)



(b)

Fig 4 M n p r t f t l t m p g d (a) F p g (b) F b l k g d d w g

th kne of t k b e n g p u c h e d s e z e s n d p a r t n f i g u t n d t h e p m t y f b e d r h o l e A c e s o f ± 0.0005 e b t i n a b l e o n t h n m a t e r i l i n g m p n d t y p e d h o w e v u n d e r n m a l p t n g c o n d i t i o n p r t i c a l t l e r o n l i g h t m a t e l c n b e e p t e d t o a r y f m ± 0.002 t o ± 0.010 d n h y m t e l f o m 0.010 m t o 0.035 T d d s t r n h o l e p l a e d a d t e l e t h n t h m t l t h i c k f m t h e d g o f t h h l e d l e t h n t h t m e s t h e m t a l t h i k n s f m b d d u H l l t e t b l h e d p e

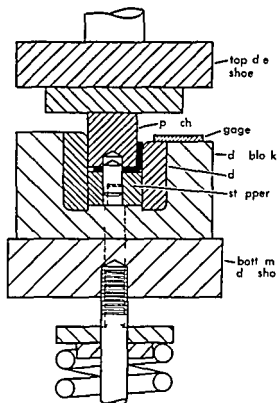


Fig 5 Bending die showing adequate clearance between hole and bend

vious to bending operations are subject to material thickness tolerances and the stretch of the material which occurs during the bending operations (Fig 5)

General design A tool lineup is made to determine the sequence of operations and the type and number of dies required to complete the part or blank. A blank layout is made to obtain optimum material usage and to reduce scrap (Fig 6) and the material is checked to make sure the flange is on an acceptable side of the blank. Material is normally fed into the die from right to left or front to back. When tolerances permit the finished edge of the stock can be used as a side of the blank.

Tonnage to shear or form is computed and the die is designed for a pressure that will handle this capacity. It is generally possible to improve die life by using a press rated for twice the required capacity. Work can be performed on presses of less than the computed capacity by staggering the lengths of punches or by adding shear to the punch or die. Safety requires that tapped holes be pro-

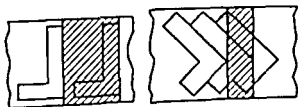


Fig 6 Blank layout comparison of material

vided for eyebolts in dies 50 lb or more in weight and that safety bolts be provided to hold the dies together when not in use. Guards and undercuts are applied to dies to protect the hands of the operator. Standard punches and die inserts for round, oblong, square or rectangular holes can be purchased in small increments of size and are readily available for replacement when breakage occurs. See **MACHINING OPERATIONS METAL FORMING SHEET METAL FORMING** [R.L.C.]

Bibliography F Wilson (ed) *Tool Engineers Handbook* 1949

Johnes disease

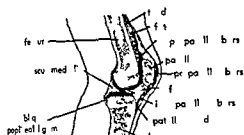
A specific enteritis or inflammation of the gastrointestinal tract of cattle, sheep and deer caused by the bacterium *Mycobacterium paratuberculosis*. The disease is spread by animals having eaten the droppings of sick animals and is diagnosed by the clinical symptoms, the presence of *M. paratuberculosis* in the droppings and by a positive skin reaction to johnin, a preparation similar to tuberculin. *M. paratuberculosis* is a short thick acid fast rod which can be artificially cultivated only on media containing a substance or substances as yet unidentified present in extracts of acid fast bacilli and of certain plants. The disease has an incubation period of a year or more. Sick animals have intermittent diarrhea without fever and gradually become emaciated. The mucosa of the small intestine shows gross thickening and the mesenteric lymph nodes enlarge without ulceration. Cause (death of tissue with change to a cheese-like consistency) and calcification do not occur. The drugs streptomycin, viomycin, 4-aminosalicylic acid and isonicotinic acid hydrazide although used successfully in the treatment of tuberculosis have been used without success in the treatment of Johnes disease. Animals that have Johnes disease must be destroyed because they rarely recover and present a focus of infection for other animals in the herd. See **TUBERCULOSIS** [C.H.M.]

Joint (anatomical)

The region or point of contact between bony surfaces. It is known as an articulation. There are three general types of articulation: the synarthrosis, or immovable; the amphiarthrosis, or slightly movable; and the diarthrosis, or freely movable.

Synarthroses include those immovable joints where the bony surfaces are fixed but usually separated slightly by a small amount of fibrocartilage. The cartilage includes the sutures of the skull and the type known as synchondroses where a piece of cartilage acts as a temporary form of articulation. The latter condition is seen in children before the cartilage is converted into the bone of adulthood. Other special forms of synarthrosis occur such as gomphosis, the insertion of the teeth into the bony socket, or the union of the jaw.

In the slightly movable amphiarthroses, the opposing bony surfaces are separated by a flattened articular disk of fibrocartilage or rather a small



Lat f w f k i t (F m N L H) d A
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2d ed B l k st 1956)

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me (b t e the t b and th fibula at the ankl

Dartho es r ma ked by a syn i l memb e
h h l m cl ed about the opposing bo es
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d l b w a w i d r g f m t n t h t h
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f m t j n t f t h m b l t y p t h a d f i
n t r a g m t f t g t o l l g m t
t h f h t g t h n d p p t S M U S C U L A R
S Y S T E M S K E L E T A L S Y S T E M

[E G S T]

Joint (anatomical) disorders

Local o g l i z e d d t w h h f i t t h
j n s n e l t e d t u A b t e p 25
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m n a r f o r m f r t h t s, n f m m t f j t
e t r u r e s. Th e m a y f i l l w s p c i f i c f t
i n j u r y g l i z e d a t t d g n e t e
h a g e s h i l g l y p l l e l t h a g g p
l o t h b o d y

The arthritis of rheumatic fever is fairly charac-
teristic in that joint in ol ement is usually migra-
tory and coincides with the clinical state. Although
the exact cause is unknown a form of hypersensi-
tivity to a prior streptococcal infection is appar-
ently contributory

Rheumatoid arthritis one of the mo t common
d i s e a s e s w h i c h i n l e s j i n t s i s a l s o o f u n k n w n
e t i o l o g y b u t a g a i n h y p e r s e n s i t i v i t y i s r e l a t e d
a s w e l l a s o t h e r f a c t o r s I t o c c u r s m o t o f t e n i n y o u n g
o r m i d d l e a g e d a d u l t a n d h a s a m a r k e d t e n d e n c y
t o d e g o p t e r e m n M u l t i p l e j o i n t s
a e i o l e d p e c i a l l y t h e o f t h e s m l l b o n e i n
t h e h a n d s f e e t, w r i t s r j a w I n m a n y a f f e c t e d
p a t h e r e i s a c l o s e c o r r e l a t i o n b e t w e e n s y m p t o m s a n d m e t a b o l i c t e

O t h e r s o c a l l e d c o l l g e n d i s e a s e s s u c h a s l u p u s
e r y t h m t o a d p e r i a r t e r i t i s o d a f r e q u e n t l y
a r e a c c o m p a n i e d b y a t h i t s m u c h l i k e t h e r h e m
t o d v a r t y

Degenerative joint disease is most common in
old r people. The major form steoarthritis is
m e d i c a l l y d e r i v e d f r o m t h e a t t a c k o f t h e a r t i c u l a r s u r f a c e s
o f t h e w e i g h t b e a r i n g j o i n t s o f t h e k n e e h i p a n d
s p i n The e n d f t h e f i g e s a r e o f t e n i n v o l e d

Arthritis may be produced by trauma, a need
f m a i n l e t i s d a m a g e t o j u r y f r o m r e p e t i d p h y l i s u l t t o a p r t i c u l a r j i n t

I n f e c t i o n a r t h r i t i s m a y b e c a u s e d b y g o n r r h e a
r i n o n l y p n e m o c o c t e p t o c o c i a d
o t h e r p t h g i c o g n i s m s S p e c i a l f o r m m o r e
c h r c i n t u r e a r e e e n t b e r c u l o s a d
s y p h i s

C o u t s a n e m p l f a r t h r i t i s c a u s e d b y m e t a
b l o c d o r d I t h i s i t a c e t h e r e i s n a b n r
m l t y i p i n e b e a k d w n t h a t p r o d u c e a c c u m u l a t i o n
o f r e c a d a d u r t e s i n j i n t t i e s T h e
p h y c a l f i d i g s a n d c l i c a l c u r a r e u l l y
d t t

J n t d o r d s m a y b e f n d i c e r t a i n r v u s
s y m d a s e p a t i c u l a r l y t h s e w h c h a f f e c t t h e
p l e d S y i g o m y e l i a s y p h i s (t a b e s d r a l)
d l p y a e e m p l e i n w h c h d e t r c t e
j i t t l e o m a y b e e c d r y t o n e r v e d m g e
S L E P R O S Y

M a y s y t e m d e e s o f u n k n o w n o r q u e d i f
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b l o d d o d c r o m g l y n e o d i n e d y s f u n c
t n d R a y a d s d e e a d i e a e f b l o d v e s
l a e m p l w h d i t t h e d t y

L o l d t r b e e t h p c i f i c r a n n p e f i
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T m s f j t t a e u s a l l y b g n c h o n
d m f i b r m d l p m a b u t t h m l g a n t
y o o r m n o t e

R h m t u m p f i p e d m i n a t l y l y
t m w h h l d e s l c l p i a d t d e e s
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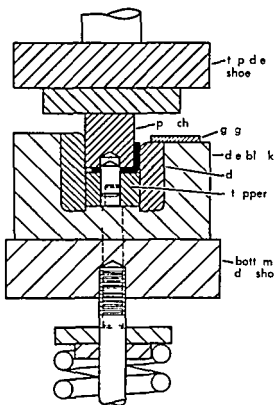


Fig 5 Bending die showing adequate clearance between hole and bend

vious to bending operations are subject to material thickness tolerances and the stretch of the material which occurs during the bending operation (Fig 5)

General design A tool lineup is made to determine the sequence of operations and the type and number of dies required to complete the part or blank. A blank layout is made to obtain optimum material usage and to reduce scrap (Fig 6) and the material is checked to make sure the burr is on an acceptable side of the blank. Material is normally fed into the die from right to left or front to back. When tolerances permit the finished edge of the stock can be used as a side of the blank.

Tonnage to shear or form is computed and the die is designed for a press that will handle this capacity. It is generally possible to improve die life by using a press rated for twice the required capacity. Work can be performed on presses of less than the computed capacity by staggering the lengths of punches or by adding shear to the punch or die. Safety requires that tapped holes be pro-

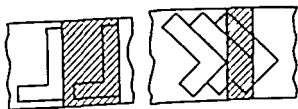


Fig 6 Blank layout comparison of material used to produce one blank (shaded portion) by two different die positions

vided for eyebolts in dies 50 lb or more in weight and that safety bolts be provided to hold the dies together when not in use. Guards and undercuts are applied to dies to protect the hands of the operator. Standard punches and die inserts for round, oblong, square or rectangular holes can be purchased in small increments of size and are readily available for replacement when breakage occurs. See **MACHINING OPERATIONS** **METAL FORMING** **SHEET METAL FORMING** [RLC]

Bibliography F Wilson (ed) *Tool Engineers Handbook* 1949

Johnes disease

A specific enteritis or inflammation of the gastrointestinal tract of cattle, sheep and deer caused by the bacterium *Mycobacterium paratuberculosis*. The disease is spread by animals having eaten the droppings of sick animals and is diagnosed by the clinical symptom, the presence of *M. paratuberculosis* in the droppings and by a positive skin reaction to johnin, a preparation similar to tuberculin *M. paratuberculosis*, a short thick acid fast rod which can be artificially cultivated on media containing a substance or substance yet unidentified present in extracts of acid fast bacilli and of certain plants. The disease has an incubation period of a year or more. Sick animals have intermittent diarrhea without fever and gradually become emaciated. The mucus of the small intestine shows gross thickening and the mesenteric lymph nodes enlarge without ulceration. Cattle (death of tissue with change to a cheese-like consistency) and calcification do not occur. The drugs streptomycin, viomycin, 4-aminosalicylic acid and isonicotinic acid hydrazide, although used success fully in the treatment of tuberculosis, have been used without success in the treatment of Johnes disease. Animals that have Johnes disease must be destroyed because they rarely recover and present a focus of infection for other animals in the herd. See **TUBERCULOSIS** [CHM]

Joint (anatomical)

The region or point of contact between bony surfaces is also known as an articulation. There are three general types of articulation: the synarthrosis, or immovable; the amphiarthrosis, or slightly movable; and the diarthrosis, or freely movable.

Synarthrosis includes the immovable joint where the bony surfaces are fixed but usually separated slightly by a small amount of fibrocartilage. These include the suture of the skull and the type known as synchondrosis, where a piece of cartilage acts as a temporary form of articulation. The latter condition is seen in children before the cartilage is converted into the bone of the adult. Other possible forms of synarthrosis occur such as gomphosis, the insertion of the teeth into the bone sockets, or alveoli of the jaw.

In the slightly movable or amphiarthrotic joint the opposing bony surfaces are separated by a fibrocartilaginous disk often of rather complex structure. Common examples include the inter-

Other relatively rare forms of arthropathy are occasionally encountered See GONORRHEA HYPFR SENSITIVITY PNEUMOCOCCUS RHUMATIC FEVER STREPTOCOCCUS SYHILIS TUBERCULOSIS URIC ACID [F C ST]

Joint (mechanical)

The surface at which two or more mechanical or structural components are united Whenever parts of a machine or structure are brought together and fastened into position a joint is formed (see STRUCTURAL CONNECTIONS) Mechanical joints can be fabricated by a great variety of methods but all can be classified into two general types temporary (screw snap or clamp for example) and permanent (brazed welded or riveted for example) The list that follows is not exhaustive but does include many of the more common methods of forming joints

1 Screw threads Bolt and nut machine screw and nut machine screw into tapped hole threaded parts (rod pipe) self tapping screw lock screw studs with nuts threaded inserts coiled wire inerts drive crews See BOLT BOLTED JOINT NUT SCREW SCREW FASTENER WASHER

2 Rivets Solid hollow explosive and other blind side types See RIVET RIVETED JOINT

3 Welding See WELDED JOINT WELDING AND CUTTING OF METALS

4 Soldering See SOLDERING

5 Brazing See BRAZING

6 Adhesive See ADHESIVE ASPHALT AND ASPHALTITE EPOXY RESIN GLUE MUCILAGE

7 Friction held Nails dowels pins clamps clips keys shrink and press fits

8 Interlocking Twisted tabs snap ring twisted wire crimp

9 Other Peening staking wiring stapling retaining rings magnetic Allo pipe joints are made with screw threads couplings caulking and by welding or brazing masonry joints are made with cement mortar [W H C]

Joule

A unit of energy or work in the meter kilogram second (mks) system of units being equal to the work done by a force of magnitude 1 newton when the point at which the force is applied is displaced 1 meter in the direction of the force Joule is a short name for newton meter of energy or work and hence is equivalent to 10 ergs and also to 1 watt sec The present accepted relation between the 15 calorie and the joule is $1 \text{ cal}_{15} = 4.1855 \pm 0.0004$ joules The term joule should never be used as a synonym for newton meter of torque See WORK see also UNITS SYSTEMS OF [D R K]

Joule's law

A quantitative relation between the quantity of heat produced in a conductor and an electric current flowing through it As experimentally determined and announced by J P Joule the law states that when a current of voltaic electricity is propa-

gated along a metallic conductor the heat evolved in a given time is proportional to the resistance of the conductor multiplied by the square of the electric intensity Today the law would be stated as $H = RI^2$ where H is rate of evolution of heat in watts the unit of heat being the joule R is resistance in ohms and I is current in amperes This statement is more general than the one sometimes given that specifies that R be independent of I Also it is now known that the application of the law is not limited to metallic conductors

Although Joule's discovery of the law was based on experimental work it can be deduced rather easily for the special case of steady conditions of current and temperature As a current flows through a conductor one would expect the observed heat output to be accompanied by a loss in potential energy of the moving charges that constitute the current This loss would result in a descending potential gradient along the conductor in the direction of the current flow as usually defined If E is the total potential drop this loss by definition is equal to E in joules for every coulomb of charge that traverses the conductor The loss conceivably might appear as heat as a change in the internal energy of the conductor as work done on the environment or as some combination of the two The second is ruled out however because the temperature is constant and no physical or chemical change in a conductor as a result of current flow has ever been detected The third is ruled out by hypothesis leaving only the generation of heat Therefore $H = EI$ in joules per second or watts By definition $R = E/I$ a ratio which has positive varying value Elimination of E between the two equations gives

$$H = RI^2 \quad (1)$$

which is Joule's law as stated above If I change to a new steady value I' R to R' and H to H' then $H = RI^2$ as before The simple case occurs where R is independent of I (see OHM'S LAW) If the current is varying the resulting variation in temperature and internal energy unduly enters and strictly speaking should be allowed for in the theory Yet in all but the most exceptional cases any correction would be negligible

This phenomenon is irreversible in the sense that a reversal of the current will not reverse the outflow of heat a feature of paramount importance in many problems in physics and engineering Thus the heat evolved by an alternating current is found by taking the time average of the value of I^2 (1) Incidentally the change in internal energy if the were included in the theory would average out Hence the equation continues to take the similar form $\bar{H} = \bar{R} \bar{I}^2$ for alternating current applications See HEATING ELECTRIC [L C H]

Juglandales

An order of the plant kingdom Dicotyledonous consisting of one family (Juglandaceae) with 6 genera including 60 species occurring principally in the

from the diffusion furnace and one surface is lapped and etched to remove the p type layer and expose the n type material for the n region contact

Junction rectification Rectification occurs in a semiconductor wherever there is a relatively abrupt change of conductivity type. In any semiconductor the product of the concentrations of the majority and minority current carriers is a temperature dependent equilibrium constant. The conductivity is proportional to the majority carrier concentration and inversely proportional to the minority carrier concentration. When a $p-n$ junction is reverse biased (p region negative with respect to n region) the majority carriers are blocked completely by the barrier and only the minority carriers can flow under the barrier. This minority carrier current is the sum of the individual currents from the n and p regions and each component is inversely proportional to the conductivity of its region. In germanium of about 10 ohm cm resistivity a $p-n$ junction reverse leakage

current is about 10^{-8} amp/cm². In silicon of the same resistivity it is about 10^{-7} amp/cm² because of the much lower equilibrium constant of silicon.

When a $p-n$ junction is forward biased (p region positive with respect to the n region) the majority hole and electron distributions can flow into the opposite region since the barrier is markedly lowered. Since electrons flowing into a p region or holes flowing into an n region represent a great increase in minority carrier concentration the thermodynamic equilibrium of the holes and electrons is disturbed and the product of their concentrations increases as the junction is approached. The resistivity of both the n and p type regions is considerably lowered by these excess minority carriers and the forward current is greater than the current through a geometrically equivalent bar of material containing no $p-n$ junction.

The electrons in an n type semiconductor are given up to the conduction process by donor impurity atoms which remain as fixed positively charged centers. Similarly the holes of a p region

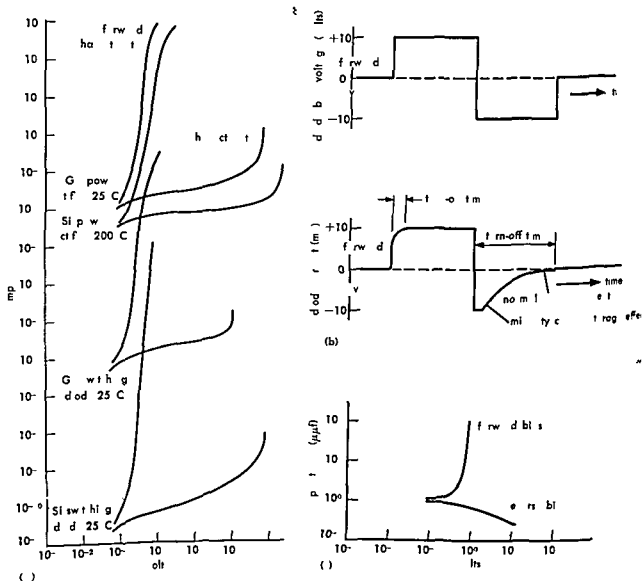


Fig 2 Junction diode characteristics (a) Diode rectification characteristics (b) Diode switching characteristics (c) Silicon switching diode capacitance

created by the capture of electrons by acceptor impurity atoms which remain a fixed negative charge center. In both cases the positive charge of the fixed impurity centers is neutralized by the positive charge of the majority carriers.

As a p n t n the barr er that ke ps maj r ty
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junction diode characteristics. Figure 2 shows typical rectification, switching and static characteristics of a junction diode. From the rectification characteristic (Fig. 2a) it can be seen that the junction has a low reverse leakage current at a high forward bias. In Germanium the high level of forward bias voltage drops to give a current density 10^{-2} A/cm² can be operated at 200°C. The germanium diodes can be operated below 100°C.

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r q u e d t x m o e l l f t h e e c e s s m t y c a r
r i e r s i n j e c t e d t o b o t h t h a d p - r e g i d u r
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T h e l l e d t h m o s t y r r i e t a g e f f e c t
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g o o d s w i t h g d d e s i n d o e s a u a l l y
s o m e w h t u p e t g e r m m u s i n t h
p e c t. F i t h e d i o f t h p p e r t e o f
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SELECTION OF JUNCTION TRANSISTOR TRANSISTOR
POINT CONTACT DIODE (LPHU)

Junction transistor

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 re r f m d betw m nd cto gons of
 ppo co d u ty type Ths typ f t an tor
 byf the m t w dely ued Jun t n t m s
 a g po t g f m few m llswatts (mw)
 t abo t 30 w h t ff q y f om 05-700
 m g y l s (V) d g n f m 10-50 dec bels
 (db) G r m n m the m t w dely ued m
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type by the method of fabricating the structure
and metal by the principle of pattern

Alloy junction transistors Also called **fusion junction transistor** these are made in the **pnp** and **pn** form. The emitter and collector regions are formed by recrystallization of the material alloyed from an alloy of emitter material dissolved in a molten metal mixture. For the germanium **pnp** alloy junction transistor the metal is usually indium with a small percentage of gallium. For the germanium **pn** alloy junction transistor the metal may be a mixture of lead with tin, or with antimony. The major metal for each of the alloy (indium, lead or bismuth) serves as the solvent for germanium. The minor element serves as a source for the impurity needed to render the recrystallized germanium opposite in conductivity type to the original wafer. The **pn** alloy unit is the more common type. For a general description and definition of the term used here see **TRANSISTOR**.

Figure 1 compares several transistor types which show how the impurity concentration in the structure affects the concentration of the p-type impurity and the concentration of the n-type impurity. The net impurity concentration determines the conductivity type and magnitude (as semiconductor). The profiles of all ytra show that there is a high concentration of impurity concentrated at the emitter and collector junctions and that the conductivity of the emitter and collector regions is high compared to that of the base region. Such a structure is how good minority carrier efficiency but only moderate collector current gain and relatively high emitter capacitance.

[illegible]

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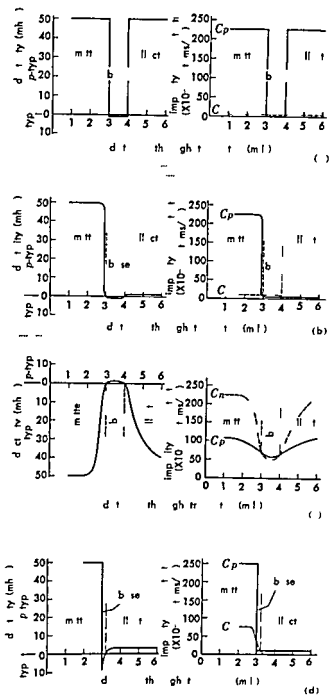


Fig 1 Conductivity and impurity profiles of typical junction transistors (a) p-p alloy junction transistor (b) p-p grown junction transistor (c) p-n te-grown junction transistor (d) p-n p post-alloy diffused junction transistor

age. The one disadvantage of this method is that both the collector and base regions show relatively high series resistances.

Rate grown and remelt junction transistors
These are a subtle variation of the grown junction technique. If a melt contains more than one impurity, the proportion of each impurity picked up by an advancing solid interface will vary with the speed of advance. With the proper choice of n and p type impurities one can grow an $n-p-n$ transistor structure in germanium, for example, by radically slowing down the pulling (withdrawal) rate for a short time. Sometimes the pulling is

actually reversed (hence the terms remelt or melt back). The impurity profile of such a structure is shown in Fig 1c. Grown junction techniques are more widely used in fabricating silicon transistors than germanium transistors.

Diffused base drift transistor
In this transistor the minority carrier transport across the base region is achieved by the effect of a strong electric field built into the transistor structure by a fabrication technique called diffused base. In the typical alloy junction transistor (uniform base conductivity) the minority carrier transport across the base is achieved by a relatively slow diffusion process. In the drift transistor the base region shows a high conductivity gradient decreasing from the emitter to the collector (see Fig 1d). This conductivity gradient means that the majority carrier concentration is much greater near the emitter than near the collector. In order to cancel the natural diffusion of majority carriers from the high to the low concentration region, an electric field must exist of such a polarity as to tend to drive majority carriers back toward the emitter. This polarity of field then tends to drive minority carriers from the emitter to the collector when normal bias is applied to the device. Excess injected minority carriers will be accelerated across the base by this field.

The method of producing the conductivity gradient in the base is usually some sort of solid state impurity diffusion technique. One of the most useful is the formation of an alloy emitter region which contains both n and p type impurities. For germanium, the p type impurity is caused to be much in excess and gives a p type recrystallized emitter region. The n type impurity, however, has a much faster rate of diffusion and soon penetrates the original wafer beyond the recrystallization boundary. If the original wafer is p type with a relatively low conductivity, the n type impurity diffusing out of the recrystallized emitter region is in excess near the emitter, creating an n type base region with the required conductivity gradient. Such a technique as this is called by a variety of names: diffused base, post alloy diffusion, pushed out base, or simply diffused.

Drift transistors
They show the highest frequency cutoff and the fastest switching times of any of the junction transistors. Typically they have good collector voltage ratings and low collector capacitance. Because of the graded nature of the collector junction, the emitters, however, can withstand only 4-5 volts of reverse bias and show a high capacitance which often limits the frequency response of the device.

P-N-I-P junction transistors
They are intended for high frequency operation. They minimize base transit time by making the base unusually thin and they reduce collector capacitance by making the collector junction unusually thick. This is accomplished by inserting an intrinsic region (i region) between the base and collector regions. An i region is one in which the net number

of amp ties (minu p) ery low and hence the d ity ry low The frequency range f ch r r r i n t h g h that f d f t tran t s, b t t h g h e r than that of alloy tran t rs. Both p and p p types exi t

Tetrode transistor Th t t h s t w h m u t c t s on opp site sides f the base r g n l f the matter is b e d w th r e l t n t one of the e co t s a d th the base c t c t g d c b f the m p l y as the emitter b t of g r e r m g n t d e t i s p b l e to limit the f r w d b i a e a f the emitter junctio t a m u g o e a r th first b n t a c t Since m i n t y c e r s g e s e t a l l y s t r a i g h t a t h b a s e t the l l e c t t h w a l l m t the l m f the b i l e d t a r e g n c l o s e t the f i s t b a s e t c t. Th l w r s the b a e e r e s i s t a n c e and th r e f e c r a. the f r e q u e n c y r e s p o n s e t h d e v i c e Th p p r t n of j e c t e d i e r s l t t o th b a s e h i l m t r n t t h l l e c t o r h w e r i s i n c r d Th l w e r t h c u r r t g a t o f the d e

Power transistors The e e u d i n t h t p t t a g f a l e c t o c c u t b o t h s w i t c h e s d m p l i f i e (C O N T R O L L E D R E C T I F I E R) D e p e n d i n g o t h e l d, h i g h l t g r t u n g a h g h r r e t a t g h h p o w r a t g m y b e r e q u i r e d W t a y f i t h e t d p a t n w t h n t h d e s a r i l m i t t F g e 2 h w s t h r i t o n f g r d e d e m i t t e - c u r r t g a w t h e m i t t c r e t f t y p c a l p - n p j t i o p o w r t r a n s i s t F m t h u r v e t a n b e s e t h t a h i g h r r e t t g s b t e d t r i o l o s f g a i n A c t l l y the l l t a t d d p n g t i a f u n c t i o n f e r r t d e t y s o t h a t t e c h l g r l a m p m e n t s l l w i g l g e m i t t e r a n d l l e c t c n t a t s w l l g e t t l y i m p r e t h e h g h c u r r t p r f r m U s u a l l y l g e e a e m i t t r a n d l l e c t r t i s a t t e d d b y g e m e t c a l c o m p l t y p o o q u a l t y j n t s r b o t h S l

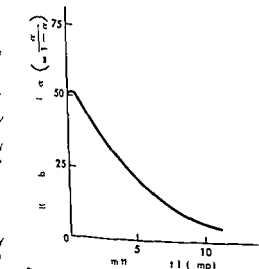


Fig 2 V w h m t t f m m r r e g (l l y p w t t

c n o f f e g r e a t p o m e t the power tran t r field b a u c e i t i s c a b l e o f h i g h e r t e m p e r a t u r e o p e r a t i o n a d c o n s i d e r a b l y h i g h e r l t a g e r a t i n g T h e s e a d a t a g a e f l e t b y i t m o r d i f f i c u l t t e c h n o l o g y a d b y t h e r l a t l y l a r g e l t g e d r p o f s i l i c o n t a t a t h i g h s a t u r a t i o n c u r r e n t

Summary The followi g o m p a r i n m a y b e m a d e f the d i f f e r e n t j u t n t r a n t r t y p e s G e r m a n i u m a l l y t a n i o r a r e u e d i n the a d o f r q u e n c y f i e l d a d t a l e s s e r e x t e t i n the p o w e r f i e l d a d i n the m o d a t e - s p e e d s w i t c h i n g f i e l d T h e r e t f f e q u e n c y r a g e s f r o m 50 k c f o r m e o f the p w e r t y p e s t 0 M f s o m f the s w i t c h i n g t y p e s P o w e r r t n g r a g e f r o m 100 m t 30 w a t t s a d o l t a g e r a t i n g s r e 0 - 150 v l t S i l i c o d i f f u s e d j u n c t i o n g r o w j u n c t i o n t y p e s h w a p p a r b l y h i g h e r v o l t g e a d p o w e r r a t i n g (300 l t a n d 50 w a t t) b u t h e l o w f r e q u e n c y a d c u r r e n t r a t i n g I n the h g h f r e q u e n c y f i e l d t h d r i f t t a n s i s t i s m t u e d G r m a u m d r i f t t r n i o r r a n g e p t 100 M i n f r e q u e n c y c u t o f f a n d h e a b o t 50 m w p w r a t g S i l i c n d i f t t r a t r a n g p t o b o u t 00 M c i f r e q u e n c y c u t o f f I g e n l m t s i l o n t n t o r w i l l o p e r a t e u p t 200 C, w h i l e g r m a u m t r n i o r m t b e k p t b l w 100 C [L P H U]

Bibl g a p h y L P H t e r H a d b k o f S e m c d t E l e c t c s 1956

Jupiter

The l a g e t p l a n t i the l r s y s t e m a d the f i f t h t h e r d o f d i s t a c e t o the S u n I t i s b l e t t h n a k e d y e x p t f o s h r t p e r o d w h e t i n e a i t s n j c t n w t h the S U a l l y t i t h e c d b r i g h t p l a e t i n the k y O l y M s a t i t m a m l u m n o i t y a d v n p p b r i g h t e r J u p t e r s h i g h t t h a S i the b r i g h t e s t f i x e d s t

Planet and its orbit The m i o r b i t a l l e m e t s a r a m i m j a r m e a n d i s t a n c e t S u n f 485 x 10 m i n e c n t i c t y o f 0048 c a u s i g the d i s t a c e t o t h S n t v a r y a b o t 47 x 10 m i b e t w p e h l n d p h e l m d r e a l r e v l t i p i d f 1186 j r m r b i t l l c i t y o f 82 m / e a d l i t o f b a t a l p l e t l p t c f l 3 S P L A N E T

The a p p a r e n t q t i l d m e t e r o f i t d k a e f m b t 47 t i m e n o p p t (50' t p h e l c p p t 44 a t p h l p p i t n) t 32' t o j t The p l f l t t e i g d e t o t p d o t t i n i d e a b l n d i l y d e t t d b y u l n p e c t o t h l l p t t y (-) / = 0065 w h e e i the e q a t o i l d s d i s t h p l r a d Th e q t o r i l d i m t b t 88 00 m a d t h p o l a d m e t e i 82800 m i The l m i s b t 1317 (E a t h = 1) w t h n e t t y f f e w p c t The m i a b t 3184 (E r t h = 1) a d s a c u t l y d t e m d f m the m t f t h f r m j t l l t The m d e t y 134 g / m a l w l e h t t i o f t h f m j p l t s t h r e p d g a l u f the m e a n l r t i f g r t y

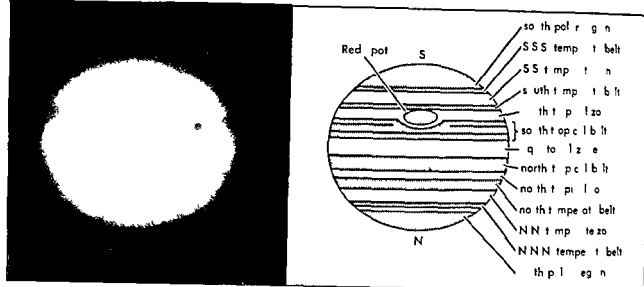


Fig 1 Telescopic appearance of Jupiter and nomenclature of principal bands

at the visible surface is about 26 m/sec^2 however because of the rapid rotation the centrifugal force at the equator amounts to 2.25 m/sec^2 reducing the effective acceleration of gravity to about 24 m/sec^2

Phases As an exterior planet Jupiter shows only gibbous phases however because of the large size of the orbit compared to that of Earth the maximum phase angle is only 12° at quadratures and the phase effect shows up only as a slightly increased darkening of the edge at the terminator. The apparent visual magnitude at mean opposition is -2.4 and the corresponding value of the reflectivity (geometrical albedo) is about 0.4 the physical albedo is 0.45 with some uncertainty due to the small range of phase angle observable. The high value of the albedo characteristic of the four major planets indicates the presence of a dense cloud laden atmosphere. See ALBEDO

Telescopic appearance Through an optical telescope Jupiter appears as an elliptical disk strongly darkened near the limb and crossed by a series of bands parallel to the equator (Fig 1). Even fairly small telescopes show a great deal of complex structure in the bands and disclose the rapid movement of rotation of the planet. The period of rotation determined from long series of observations of the bands at the central meridian is very short about $9\text{h}55\text{m}$ the shortest of the main planets. The details observed however do not correspond to the solid body of the planet but to clouds in its atmosphere and the rotation period varies markedly with latitude. The nomenclature and mean rotation periods of the main belts of clouds are given in Table 1. The rotation period of any given zone is not exactly constant but suffers continual fluctuations about a mean value Q .

Table 1 Mean latitudes and rotation periods of Jupiter's bands (after B. M. Peek)

| Band | Region | Latitude | Period 9h+ | Remarks |
|----------------------|------------|----------|------------|-----------|
| North polar region | | $> +18$ | 55m1 | |
| NNN temperate belt | Center | $+13$ | 55m20 | Temporary |
| NN temperate belt | Center | $+38$ | 55m1 s | Temporary |
| | South edge | $+35$ | 53m55s | |
| North temperate belt | North edge | $+31$ | 56m0 s | |
| | Center | $+27$ | 53m1 s | |
| | South edge | $+3$ | 49m0 s | |
| North tropical zone | Center | $+18$ | 55 n 9 | |
| North tropical belt | Center | $+13$ | 4m09s | Temporary |
| | South edge | $+6$ | 0 1 | |
| Equatorial zone | Middle | 0 | 50m 1s | |
| South tropical belt | North edge | -6 | 50 n 7 | |
| | Center | -10 | 51 n 1s | |
| | South edge | -19 | 5 m39 | |
| South tropical zone | Center | -23 | 55 n36 | |
| Great Red Spot | Center | - | 138s | |
| South temperate belt | North edge | - | 3m0 | Temporary |
| | Center | -9 | n 0 | |
| | South edge | -31 | m0 | |
| SS temperate zone | Center | -38 | 5 m0 s | |
| SSS temperate zone | Center | -4 | 5 m30s | Temporary |
| South polar region | | < -4 | 30s | |

astion l sh r l i e d a t m o p h e i c p h e n o m e n m a y
depart more strongly from the m a r t i o p e r i o d
of the zone: h h they appear and thus drift
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The o t t n a x i s i s l i n e d o n l y 3 t o t h e p r o p e n
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fect a p a c t a l l y n e g l i g i b l e

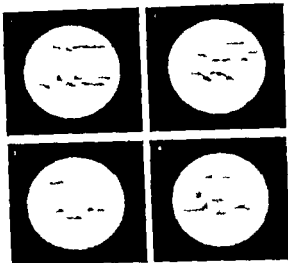
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m a k e s g b e b e n o b s e r v e d t l a t s o d e
d e s o e v e n c e t u r e s w i t h s m e f i c t u a t i o n
a b i l i t y T h m o s t c o n p i c u o s d p e m a n e n t
m a r k i n g i s t h g e a t R e d S p o t i n t e r m i t t e n t l y r e c o r d e d
s i n c e t h m i d d l e o f t h e c e n t e r t h c e n t r y
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1891-188 1893-1894 1903 1907 1911 1914
1919-1920 1926-1927 a d e s p e c i a l l y 1936-1937
o t h t i m e s i t h s b e e f a i n t a n d o n l y s l i g h t l y
c o l o r e d a d o c o n l y n l y i t s t i n e o r t h t o f
t h e b r i g h t b a y r h o l l o w o f t h e t h t e m p r
a e z o n e w h c h u r r d s t h s r m a n e d v i b l e
(see Fig 2)

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t u d e a n d 10 000 m i l e i n l a t u d e

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a n t e r m i t t e n t l y b e r v e d o J u p i t e r b e t w e e n
1901 a n d 1935 a n d p a s s i b l y a l o 1940 T h s m a r k
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b r i t e r d i s t a n c e h a b e b e n o b s e r v e d b u t t h i r
m e c h a n i s m s o f f r m t i a n d l w o f m i n u s r e
t u n d e s t o o d

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s t m l b e d o n a r o t a t o p r i o d f 9h50m30
003 s a d f r e p t n t h e q u a t o r i z o e t h e
h e r S y s t e m l l b e d a r t t p o d f
9h5m40.632s u e d f o p o i n t o u t s d t h
T h p e r i o d f r a t i o n o f y g s p o t b g
u b l d t e s i l y q a l t t h m e a p d
f e t h l g t u d e s y s t e m t h e r e i s a g e n e r l d f t
h h a f t e a f f i l y l n g t m c e x e d o n e
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b o u t h l d l a y b g f t h d e o f 150 m
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l o b e p e t d r e c t b r v t s o f t h u l t



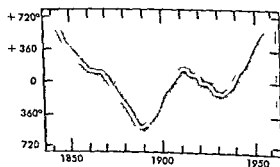
F g 2 V b l b l i t y f t h e R d S p o t (1) 1929
(2) 1933 (3) 1936 (4) 1938

t i o n f a s t a r b y J u p i t e r h a e c o f i r m e d t h c n
c l o n

T h e r a d i o m e t r i l l y d e t e r m i n e d t m p e r a t u r e o f
t h e v i b l e s r f a c e o f J u p i t e a b o u t 130 K i n
f i r l y g o o d a g r e e m e n t w i t h t h e v l u t h e o r e t c a l l y
e s t i m d f r m t h e a s s u m p t i o n t h a t t h v i b l e
l u d l y e r i s m a l l y c r y s t a l o f s o l i d f i e d a m
m n i (a b o u t 160 K)

T h e l o r s o f t h e c l o u d s o f J u p i t e r h a e b e e n
a t t r i b u t e d t o t h e p r e s e n c e o f v a r i o u s m e t a l l e m
p r i t e s s u c h a s d u m r p o t a s s i u m i n t h e a t m o
s p h e r e

I n t e r n a l s t r u c t u r e V a r i o u s t h e o r e t i c a l m d e l s
o f t h e i n t e r n a l s t r u c t u r e o f J u p i t e r c a l c u l a t e d a f t e r
1930 h a d s g g e t t e d t h e f o l l o w i n g c o n s t i t u t i o n a
r e l a t i v e l y s m a l l c o r e o f r o c k a n d i o n s u r
f o u n d e d b y a t h i c k m a t l e o f s e v e r a l a r i e t i e s o f
w a t e r a d o t h i c e u n d e r v e r y h i g h p e s s u r e s
a n d a t v e r y l o w t e m p e r a t u r e a n d a b o v e t h i s a n e x
t e n s i v e l i q u i d a n d g a s e o u s a t m o s p h e r e w h o e u p
p e r m o t l a y e l y a e i b l e H o w e r t h e d i
c o e r y 1954 o f t h e m s o b y J u p i t e r o f t r o g
p l e f o n t h r m a l r d o o s e a t w a l e n g t h s
l e t 15 m l e d a t r o m e t o q u e t i o n u c h
m d e l d t c n d e t h e p o s s i b l e p e s e c e o f h o t
e n e r g y o r c e s u d e t h o l d s u r f a c e t a m o d e



F g 3 D i s t a n c e f r o m t h e R d S p o t b t w
1840 a d 1955 (A f f B M P k)

ate depth below the optically impenetrable cloud cover. The recurrence of radio emission in certain longitudes indicates the existence of sources of energy rotating with a constant period of 9h55m29.6s and suggests the presence under the clouds of a solid surface rotating with this period. See RADIO ASTRONOMY.

The existence of an inner solid body at a high temperature appears to be confirmed by measurements of the thermal radio emission of Jupiter at wavelengths shorter than 10 cm which indicate radiation temperatures of the order of 600 K. Earlier theoretical models of the internal structure of Jupiter are in need of considerable revision as a result of these discoveries.

Satellites. Jupiter has 12 known satellites of which the first 4 I, II, Europa, III, Ganymede, IV, Callisto, discovered by Galileo in 1610, are by far the most important. The main elements of the 12 satellites are given in Table 2.

The four Galilean satellites are of fifth and sixth stellar magnitude and would be visible to the naked eye if they were not so close to the much brighter parent planet. All the others are faint telescopic objects. The fifth satellite discovered visually by E. E. Barnard in 1892 moves inside the orbit of Io; the others move in much larger orbits outside that of Callisto and have been discovered photographically since 1900.

The masses of the major satellites can be roughly estimated from their mutual perturbations in terms of the mass of the Moon as a unit: the mass of III is about 2, of I about 1, of IV about $\frac{1}{3}$ and of II about $\frac{1}{4}$. The four Galilean satellites show measurable disks easily seen with telescopes of 6 to 8 in. aperture; larger telescopes show distinct markings on the disks (Fig. 4). The apparent diameters are of the order of 1-2" and the corresponding linear diameters are listed in Table 2. Ganymede and Callisto are larger than Mercury but smaller than Mars; their densities, about 2.5-3 g/cm³, are approximately the same as the density of the Moon and of the Earth's crust. Observations of their surface markings and the regular variations of brightness as they move along their orbits indicate that the four major satellites (and

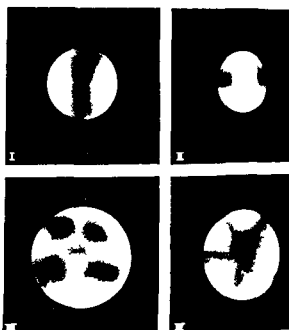


Fig. 4. Telescopic aspects of the Galilean satellites.



Fig. 5. Satellite phenomena.

probably also V) always present the same face to Jupiter, much as the Moon does to the Earth; thus their periods of rotation are equal to their periods of revolution. The albedoes for I, II, and III are relatively high, however IV is very dark and has an albedo smaller than that of the Moon.

The planes of the orbits of the major satellites are inclined less than 0.5° to the equatorial plane of Jupiter, so that with the occasional exception of IV they are eclipsed in Jupiter's shadow each revolution and also project their shadows on Jupiter and transit in front of its disk near conjunction. The eclipses, transits, and occultations

Table 2. Satellites of Jupiter.

| Satellite | Mean distance from Jupiter 10 miles | Semi-major axis 10 ⁶ miles | Diameter miles | Mean distance from Jupiter 10 ⁶ miles | Albedo (I) | Mass (Moon = 1) |
|--------------|--|--|-------------------|---|------------|-----------------|
| I Io | 6 | 1.769 | 300 | (1) | 0.3 | 1.0 |
| II Europa | 417 | 35.1 | 190 | 5 (1) | 0.3 | 0.6 |
| III Ganymede | 666 | 155 | 300 | 1 (1) | 0.0 | 1 |
| IV Callisto | 1110 | 16 (3) | 300 | 63 (1) | 0.03 | 1 |
| V | 113 | 0.493 | 10 | 13.0 (vi) | | |
| VI | 710 | 0.6 | 100 | 13 (1) | | |
| VII | 90 | 0.9 | 3 | 17.0 (1) | | |
| VIII | 11600 | 3 | 3 | 1.0 (1) | | |
| IX | 1100 | 8 | 1 | 18.0 (1) | | |
| X | 300 | 10 | 1 | 18.8 (1) | | |
| XI | 11000 | 00 | 19 | 18.4 (1) | | |
| XII | 13000 | 6 | 14 | 18.1 (1) | | |

[C D v]

Jurassic

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|--------------|------------|-----------|------|--|--|----------|--|----------|--|
| PRE CAMBRIAN | | PALEOZOIC | | | | MESOZOIC | | CENOZOIC | |
| A | EO | OC | AN | | | | | | |
| EA | ECAM | AN | | | | | | | |
| | OT | OC | AN | | | | | | |
| | (LATE P | ECAM | AN) | | | | | | |
| | CAMBRIAN | | | | | | | | |
| | ORDOVICIAN | | | | | | | | |
| | SILURIAN | | | | | | | | |
| | DEVONIAN | | | | | | | | |
| | MI | 1 | tppl | | | | | | |
| | P | YI | | | | | | | |
| | PERMIAN | | | | | | | | |
| | TRIASSIC | | | | | | | | |
| | JURASSIC | | | | | | | | |
| | CRETACEOUS | | | | | | | | |
| | TERTIARY | | | | | | | | |
| | QUATERNARY | | | | | | | | |

Subdivision Th Ju c system co st f
the ma di ns th Low Mddl nd Uppe
J Li s, D ggr and M lm Bla k B wn
d Whi J th term appld t these
d n m c t i pa ti ly Germ ny
F r ubd i t t ge (hr i at gr ph
u s) and e (b t at g ph u t) a e b d
m ly on th th e t E ope ta d rd
t n The H tt a g S m r Pl en bach a
d T r n st ge f m the Lowe J a c th
B joci n d B th n a f m th Mddl Ju
d th Call i Of d X mm dg n P t
l dan d P be k f rm th Upp J
I some unt the Cl l an l d d the
Mddl J Up t th X mm dg an th
tag m e in wo ld w de u e b t d t e
g l d g t t n f th fu n the yo g
J oth t g m ha e b e tr d d f
these b ds, f mpl V l g n R a d th
A t a d T th n M d t r eg Th
t ges gr p gs i e wh h b ed
rta pec es f mm t (d Amm n d
f Cephal pod) ha t t of t bed d
i m ny se f w ld w de d t but S
Ce HALO DA F S ILS

The northern European standard section is now based on the 58 ammonite zone. Local faunal differences in these regions and omezones may be based on fossil rather than ammonite size frequency. The pelecypod genus *Buchia* (Auc II) in the Upper Jurassic Silesite PELECYPODA FOSSILS

Other subdivisions of the system are formations mainly defined by lithology which form the basis of geologic mapping. In North America formation names are extensively used. In Great Britain formation names such as Lias, Inferior Oolite, Cornbrash, Oxford Clay and others are used and some of the rock units traceable to other countries though the name has been applied. The use of formation name for mapping has great advantage where worldwide correlation are needed.

Paleogeography Many authorities deny the former existence of the great land bridges across the region of present-day oceans with some exceptions. I lead a relatively permanent flow of oceanic water in a narrow way. Accepted during the Jurassic the Pacific the North Atlantic the Southern and the Arctic seas were in existence. The North Atlantic and Scandian were probably separated from one another by a land bridge extending from Scandinavia to Ireland and Greenland. A large number of known marine Jurassic deposits in either side of the South Atlantic the existence of an African Boreon is not entailed that formed the western half of Gondwanaland may still be considered a possibility. The eastern half of Gondwanaland in the present day lies in Oceania which was probably divided into the Jurassic and formed the Australo-Indo-Madagascar continent and the Lemuria. The western and eastern parts of Gondwanaland were separated from one another by a Jurassic sea on the east side of Africa. The marine deposits of the Jurassic ocean are concealed below the floor of the present ocean. All known marine Jurassic deposits occur in part of the continents where they were deposited in comparatively shallow water. The shallowly epicontinental (shallow) seas which remained in the same region throughout the time lasted 25,000,000 years of the Jurassic. Period. The duration of the Jurassic is marked by a great sedimentary thickness. In the part of the continent which was flooded by the shallow seas the thickness of the deposits of Russia generally has been found to be about 10,000 feet of Jurassic deposits which as a whole have been deposited in the northern part of Europe. The thickness of these deposits were cumulative during the geological regions, a few examples from America. Continental which formed part of the Mesozoic formation block. The marine block of the Tertiary deposited from the Mediterranean to the Himalayas and the Sahagay were probably deposited in the great synclinal trough of the Tertiary. The thickness of the Tertiary is not the same as the thickness of the Tertiary.

for filling them. In spite of their rapid sinking the depths of these geosynclinal seas were not (with some exceptions) considerably greater than those of the more stable areas as the speed of sinking was compensated by rapid filling. Typical shallow water deposits are common in such geosynclinal seas. See GEOSYNCLINE.

The Precambrian shields which form the oldest and most stable parts of the earth's crust were land areas subject to erosion during the Jurassic Period. Thus in North America the Canadian Shield was land bordered by seas both to the north and west and the Scandinavian Shield was surrounded by seas in Late Jurassic times (Fig 1). Smaller areas underlain by older rocks such as the Bohemian Mass, the French Central Plateau, the Belgian Ardennes and the German Hartz Mountains were lands the coastlines of which are indicated in many places by conglomerates and sandstones (Fig 2). See PRECAMBRIAN.

The faunas of the Early Jurassic particularly the ammonites seem to have been universal and distinct faunal realms can scarcely be recognized for this time. During the early part of the Middle Jurassic (middle Bajocian) a Pacific province seems to be indicated and somewhat later in the Jurassic (possibly Callovian) a boreal realm is developed in the Arctic and parts of Russia. Its ammonite faunas are clearly distinguished from those of the realm of the Tethys. These faunistic differences do not necessarily indicate any differentiation of climate which apparently was very uniform

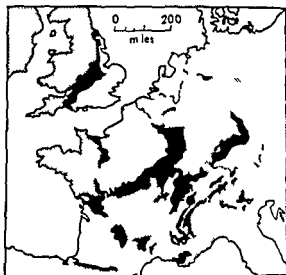


Fig 2 Distribution of Jurassic outcrops in west central Europe (From R C M ore Introduction to Historical Geology 2d ed McGraw-Hill 1958)

as indicated by the fossil vegetation. Jurassic glaciations are unknown.

Tectonic history The Jurassic Period was for most parts of the world a time of comparative tectonic passivity. Diastrophism of a major order and connected with the intrusion of batholiths was restricted to the North American Cordillera. Mountain building connected with volcanic activity took place in the Crimea and Caucasus and minor folding and faulting (the so called Germano type folding) is known from northwestern Germany and other areas. In the North American Cordillera two major episodes of diastrophism are recognized: the Agassiz and the Nevadan phases. The Agassiz phase took place at the boundary between the Middle and Late Jurassic; the Nevadan orogeny at the end of the Jurassic Period. While the Agassiz phase seems to be restricted to parts of southern British Columbia, the Nevadan phase resulted in the uplift of great parts of the former Cordilleran geosyncline. This new land was consequently subjected to erosion and the eroded material was deposited in the east where it contributed to the sediments of the Lower Cretaceous. Intrusion of large batholiths in the North American Cordillera and widespread of tectonic activity were not restricted to these two episodes of tectonic diastrophism but took place also during part of the Early and particularly Middle Jurassic. Germano type folding affected many parts of the world within belts of earlier folding which had not yet become entirely stable. Orogenic movements of this type occurred during the Late Triassic and perhaps earliest Jurassic (early Cimmerian phase). The late Cimmerian phase of many regions is about equivalent to the Nevadan orogeny and is subdivided into the Deister phase between the Kimmeridgian and lower Portlandian and the Oterwald phase between the lower and upper Portlandian. See BATHOLITH.

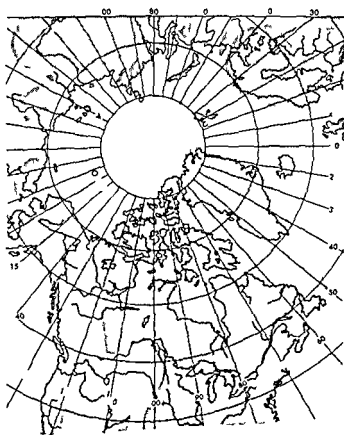


Fig 1 Fold and orogenic regions of the Boreal region



Fig 1 Jute *Corchorus capsularis* (From P DeJavill Atlas de Poche des Plantes Utiles des Pays Chauds Librairie des Sciences Naturelles 1902)

Diseases of jute A number of diseases of jute cause losses in yield and reduce fiber quality. Runner and specky fiber are primarily due to disease-producing organisms.

The fungus *Macrophomina phaseoli* is believed to cause the most serious disease of the two species of jute. It is seed-borne and soil-borne, and pyreniospores from susceptible plants besides jute also serve as sources of infection. The stem, leaves, and roots of both young and older plants are subject to attack. Stem infection usually takes place through a leaf petiole or at a node (Fig 2). Root rot is complicated in that severity is increased when *M phaseoli* is in combination with other fungi, bacteria, or nematodes, such as *Fusarium solani*, *Pseudomonas* sp, and *Meloidogyne incognita* respectively.



Fig 2 (a) Disease lesions on jute stems (b) Roots of jute plant affected by root knot nematodes. Dark areas on roots are early stages of root decay.

See BACTERIA FUNGI NEMATODA see also LEAF (BOTANY) ROOT (BOTANY) SEED (BOTANY) STEM (BOTANY)

In contrast to *M phaseoli*, *Colletotrichum capsulae* causes lesions on the stem internodes and may also attack seedlings and capsules of *C capsularis*. See FRUIT (BOTANY). *Macrophoma corchori* and *Diplodia corchori* cause stem diseases. Two species of bacteria, *Xanthomonas makatae* and *X makatae* var. *olitorum*, attack the stem and leaves of both *C capsularis* and *C olitorius*. *Pythium splendens* causes a root rot and subsequent wilt of *C capsularis*, and indications are that other species of *Pythium* also are root pathogens of jute.

Other fungi which attack jute are *Sclerotium rolfsii*, *Curvularia subulata*, *Cercospora corchori*, *Rhizoctonia solani*, *Helminthosporium* sp, and *Asteria* sp.

Seed treatment with an organomercuric material such as Ceresan, Granosan, or Agrosan GN should be practiced for control of seed-borne pathogen and seedling diseases. Stem rot may be prevented by spraying with bordeaux or a colloidal copper compound. The excessive use of nitrogenous fertilizers increases the incidence of stem diseases. Root rot control requires the use of crop rotation and, in some areas, the use of recently developed varieties of *C capsularis* which are more tolerant to certain root rot pathogens than *C olitorius*. See AGRICULTURAL SCIENCES (PLANT) PLANT DISEASE.

[T 54]

K

Kale—Kyanite

Kale

Eth of two cool a b i l rucifers (B s cu l cea a a eph la a d B fmb i ta) of Medit r a o i g d bel ng g to th pl nt ord P p erale K le i grown for its nutr t iou gree c led le e Di u t r t e re produced in Eur pe fo tock feed Kale a d colla d f fer ly th firm f ihe leave b th r minor eg t b l s in the Unted State C ltural pract e a e ml t tho ued f cabbage b t k le i s m t et h gh temperatu es Strains of th S c th d S be n a tie e mo t p pul kal s mod tely t ler nt f acid ol M t lly mea t mpe tur b low 70 F fa be t growth Hvet g i g erally 2 3 months fter pl t ng l g n i an imp rt t pduc g tate Th t tal an u l farm lu i the Unted St tes i \$740 000 S e C a b e e COLLARD PAPAVERALES VEGETA BLE GROWING. [H J C]

Kaliophylite

A m ealt to l e t f nd in ol r ck h gh a pot um nd l w s nil Kal ph l t s e of th ee p lymo ph f rm f KAISO th e the r e m r k l l l t and n rtho b mb ph f rmed art f lly at ab t 500 C. It s yall res in the hexag al syst m pri m ti ty t t w th poo p i m t e a d b al l ge Th ha d 6 on M h cale a d the p f i gr t 6 l At h gh tempe tu s a mplet wld d w l t s ex t bet n KAISO and 4 l c O b t t low t mper t th s s i compl t Th pri p l urr n e f k l l ph l t e i t M nte S c mma l t s l y S e S i c A T E M J E R A L S [C S H U]

Kalsilite

A re m l d r l d i 1947 from le i w k i M i f r u n s o th west Ug da K l l t e b m b n th d l t of th thr e poly m ph f rm f KAISO the th s r b i ph l t e nd n orth h mb pha e f r m d i l at b o r 500 C. T l m al a h w n by phot ph i h g n l The p f i gr w y 259 l n d of fra t i o and g e al p p th t r mbl n ph l d d f f l e t d i g u h f m t S t t lly th r w m e al a m l b t b long to d f f e r nt r y t l l Th k w h k l l t wa f d b a d k col ed f i e g ed m t x w th l a g l r y t a l d g n h y l l w patche Th e p t h r i t m t m i t f d p d i t d k a l l t S F E L D A T H O I D [C S H U]

Kame

A hill f p o l y t r a t i f i e d and r t d glacial dr ft in or near an e d m r a or inter l bat moraine The dep it wer f med i h le or cracks f the gl c r p t tly und r t a n d i n g water a h w n by incl ed bedding Mel t n g of u p p o r t i n g i e w l l d i t u r b e d the b d d i n g K a m e s are o m m o n l y a o c c u r r e d in k n h b y g r u p w n h m l l f e a t s s t e m d k e t t l a p p a r e t l y l f t m f r o m the m l t i n g of l c l l y b e d b l c k f g l c i a l e



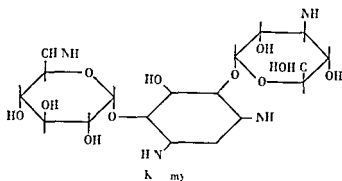
Kam i W Th m l l o c c u r r e d p s s m l r t d b of p d g (USGS ph i)

Th term k m e h a b e e n u e d l o l y and a p p l i e d t h i l l s c a d b y s t r e a m r o t n o f o t w a h t p t t e d u t w a s h o r t l l d l t a M u l k a m e t k n g o n i c a l g r e l f i l l n g s of h l e m l i e d th g h i g n l e S G L A C I A T E D T E R R A I N E [F T T]

Kanamycin

A a n t b i o t i c p r d u e d b y a p e r l y u d e c r i b e d s p c e s f t n m y c e r S t p t m y c e s k m y c t u d c o r d J p b y D H m o U m e z a w a a d w k C o l l b a t i e r e e a r h b y B r i t o l L a b o r t r e s the U n t d S t t e s a d b J p a n e s n t t d a t e d u f l g a n t c e r t a n o r g a m s h h e e e m e d i c a l p r o b l m Th n e l d e t p h y l c i h h a e e s t n t t o t h e m m l y e d a t h t c the t u b c l e b e l l s r t t t t e p t m y c n a d i o t n c d h d z i d n d m e g r m e g t i v g n s m e p o n b l f r u s a r y t e t f e c t i n S A n t b i o t c I S O N I C O T I N I C A C I D H Y D R A Z I D E S T R E T O M Y C I C h m i l t d e f k n a m y h e h o w n t t b e a t e l h l t a b l b a a n t b t m

posed of three moieties. These are 2 deoxystreptamine (a component of neomycin) 3 glucosamine and 6 glucosamine. The latter two components are glycosidically attached to the deoxystreptamine and represent compounds not previously found in natural products.



The antibiotic has bactericidal activity for a wide variety of gram positive gram negative and acid fast bacteria. Its antimicrobial spectrum is similar to that of neomycin (see NEOMYCIN). Organisms resistant to neomycin are also resistant to kanamycin and vice versa. Resistance to kanamycin develops slowly in stepwise fashion except for the mycolacteria which develop resistance rapidly.

Kanamycin is far less toxic than neomycin both acutely and chronically when given by parenteral route (injected into the body). High dosages given for prolonged times to experimental animals can cause kidney vestibular and auditory damage. Intramuscular injections result in high blood levels in one to two hours. Kanamycin is also detectable in the cerebrospinal fluid. When given orally the low blood levels obtained indicate that the antibiotic is poorly absorbed from the gastrointestinal tract.

Clinical responses have been obtained with a variety of infections. Staphylococcal infections accompanied by bacteremia (bacteria growing in the blood) have responded as have some urinary tract infections caused by a variety of organisms including *Proteus*. Treatment of urinary infections due to *Pseudomonas* has not been as successful. Early studies on chronic tuberculosis indicate usefulness when the organism is resistant to streptomycin and isonicotinic acid hydrazide. *Salmonella* and shigella infections have also been treated successfully. Kanamycin has been used satisfactorily for preoperative bowel sterilization by oral administration.

Decreased auditory acuity (hearing) in the high frequency range has been demonstrated usually only by audiometric measurement. Only a small proportion of patients had subjective loss and only rarely did complete deafness occur. Decrease in renal function has occurred rarely and was observed to return to normal after stopping treatment. [J L]

Kangaroo

Any of several species of Australian marsupial mammal of the family Macropodidae. The same family includes the tree kangaroo, the quokka,

roos, and wallabies. Kangaroos are usually large weighing as much as 200 lb. and are typically animals of the open country, a habitat in which their jumping method of locomotion is frequently developed. They have long powerful hind legs, and long muscular tails. Their front legs are short and are used for locomotion only when moving about slowly as they graze. They feed and travel in pairs in family groups or in large bands.



Kangaroo, a marsupial

Kangaroos formerly were important as an item of diet in Australia, but they have been so severely depleted for their hides, which make good leather, that they are no longer significant as food animals. They compete with domestic stock for the forage on grazing lands and are given little or no protection. See MARSUPIALIA. [JDB]

Kaolinite

The principal mineral of the kaolinite group of clay minerals. Kaolinite is composed of a single silica tetrahedral sheet and a single alumina octahedral sheet. These two units are combined so that a common layer is formed by the tips of the silica tetrahedrons and one layer of the octahedral sheet (Fig. 1). See CLAY MINERALS.

Kaolinite is of fundamental importance in the ceramics industry because of its excellent firing properties and refractoriness. It is also used extensively as a filler in rubber products and for coating and filling paper products. See CERAMIC TECHNOLOGY.

Structure. In the common structural layer 1/3 of the atoms become O instead of OH because they are shared by the silicon and aluminum. The aluminum atoms, which are present occupy only two-thirds of the possible positions in the octahedral sheet and are hexagonally distributed in a single plane in the center of the sheet. All charges within the structural unit are balanced and the formula for kaolinite is (OH)₄Si₂Al₂O₅. Any replacement within the lattice are of very small magnitude.

The sheet unit of the kaolinite mineral are continuous in both the a and b crystallographic directions.

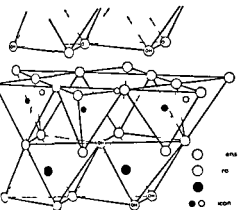


Fig 1 Diagram of kaolinite structure. (U. S. Geological Survey, 1953)

They are stacked one above the other in the direction with superfluous OH planes. The octahedral units are held firmly together by hydrogen bonding. All kaolinites show the same order of crystallinity. Poorly crystallized kaolinite is composed of large blocks with the silicate randomly placed by multiple faults. The poorly crystalline varieties have a slightly higher first order spacing than the well-crystallized mineral. Kaolinite is usually referred to as a 7-angstrom clay mineral because of its first order spacing. This approximation magnifies the distance between the hydroxyl groups. They are composed of the same structural unit and differ only in the stacking of the layers. The unit cell of dickite is made up of two kaolinite layers. The net unit cell is composed of unit layers.

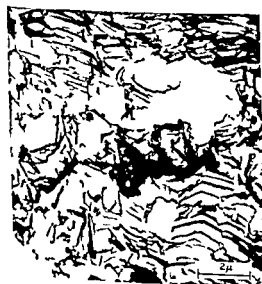


Fig 2 Electron micrograph of kaolinite. (U. S. Geological Survey, 1953)

Morphology Electron micrographs of well-crystallized kaolinite show well formed six-sided flakes frequently with an elongation in one direction (Fig 2). Particles with less distinct six-sided flake have been observed in poorly crystallized kaolinite. The latter have ragged and irregular edges and a very crude hexagonal outline. In general, poorly crystallized kaolinite occurs in smaller particles than the well-crystallized mineral.

Dickite particles are very well formed and have a distinct hexagonal outline. They differ from kaolinite in that they are much larger and can sometimes be studied with a light microscope.

Natural particles are somewhat irregular rounded flake-shaped units. Some of them show a rhombohedral outline.

Properties The mineral kaolinite has a low cation exchange capacity (5-15 milliequivalents per 100 g m). Broken bonds around the edges of the local minima are the major cause of this exchange capacity. Anionic exchange capacity is also low except when tetrahedral hydroxyl are replaced or the anion is adsorbed because of its epitaxial fit. The rate of the exchange reaction is very rapid. The exchange capacity increases as the particle size decreases.

Kaolinite contains no interlayer water between the tetrahedral layers. It does, however, have the ability to adsorb water and develop plasticity. This water has a definite configuration and is referred to as 'bound' water.

When kaolinites are heated they begin to lose their OH structural water at about 400°C with the dehydration being complete at 550-600°C. The process is irreversible for the loss of this OH water. The loss of kaolinite to metakalinite and may be explained by variation in particle size and crystallinity. The loss of OH water in poorly crystallized kaolinite is accompanied by a fairly complete loss of structure but in well-crystallized kaolinite some structural minima persist until subjected to higher temperature.

A sharp exothermic reaction occurs at 950°C in poorly crystallized kaolinite. The explanation for the thermic reaction has been attributed to the formation of $\gamma\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ by some workers and to the nucleation of mullite by the Recce and coworkers. The latter explanation is more plausible.

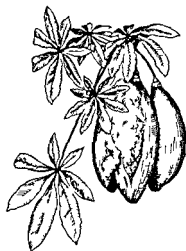
Formation The kaolinite type forms under conditions of low temperature and pressure. It can form under hydrothermal conditions through the alteration of feldspar and other minerals. The kaolinite may form from the contact metamorphism of the alkalis and alkali feldspar. The kaolinite may also form from the metamorphism of the metamorphic rocks. The kaolinite may also form from the metamorphism of the metamorphic rocks. The kaolinite may also form from the metamorphism of the metamorphic rocks.

The present day metamorphic conditions for the formation of kaolinite are not well understood. The present day metamorphic conditions for the formation of kaolinite are not well understood. The present day metamorphic conditions for the formation of kaolinite are not well understood.

in the sea. It is also indicative of relatively rapid accumulation of material. See CLAY COMMERCIAL [F M W R E G R]

Kapok tree

The kapok or silk cotton tree *Ceiba pentandra* is a member of the bombax family (Bombacaceae). The tree has a bizarre growth habit and produces pods containing seeds covered with silky hairs called silk cotton. It occurs in the American trop-



Pods and leaves of kapok tree (*Ceiba pentandra*) (From E. L. Palmer, *Fieldbook of Natural History*, McGraw-Hill, 1949)

ics Java, Philippine Islands and Ceylon. The silk cotton is the commercial kapok used for stuffing cushions, mattresses and pillows. Kapok has a very low specific gravity and is impervious to water; consequently it is excellent material for filling life preservers and other similar equipment. See MALAYALAS [PDS]

Karman vortex street

A double row of line vortices in a fluid. Under certain conditions a Karman vortex street is shed in the wake of bluff cylindrical bodies when the relative fluid velocity is perpendicular to the generators of the cylinder as illustrated. This periodic shedding of eddies occurs first from one side of the body and then from the other, an unusual phenomenon because the oncoming flow may be perfectly steady. Vortex streets can often be seen for example in rivers downstream of the columns supporting a bridge. The street have been studied most completely for circular cylinders at low subsonic flow speeds. Regular, perfectly periodic eddy shed-



Karman vortex street

ding occurs in the range of Reynolds numbers based on cylinder diameter from 50-300. Above Re of 300, a degree of randomness begins to occur in the shedding and becomes progressively greater as Re increases until finally the wake is completely turbulent. The highest Re at which some light periodicity is still present in the turbulent wake is about 10^5 .

Vortex streets can be created by steady wind blowing past smoke stacks, transmission line bridges, missiles about to be launched vertically, and pipe lines above ground in the desert. These streets give rise to oscillating lateral forces on the shedding body. If the vortex shedding frequency is near a natural vibration frequency of the body, the resonant response may cause structural damage. The Aeolian tones or singing of wires in a wind are an example of a forced oscillation due to a vortex street. T. von Karman showed that an idealized infinitely long vortex street is stable to small disturbances if the spacing of the vortices is such that $h/a = 0.281$, actual spacing are close to this value. A complete and satisfying explanation of the formation of vortex streets has, however, not yet been given. For $10 < Re < 10^5$ the shedding frequency f for a circular cylinder in low subsonic speed flow is given closely by $fd/U = 0.21$ where d is the cylinder diameter and U is stream speed. h/a is approximately 1.7. A. Roshko discovered a spanwise periodicity of vortex shedding on a circular cylinder at $Re = 80$ of about 18 diameters, thus it appears that the line vortices are not quite parallel to the cylinder axis. See FLUID FLOW PRINCIPLES, VORTEXES [AEBR]

Bibliography A. Roshko, On the wake and dynamics of bluff bodies, *J. Aeronaut. Sci.* 22(2) 121-135, 1955.

Karst topography

Characteristic indications of minor third order destructively developed land features resulting from subaerial and underground solution of lime stone under conditions of humid climate. The pattern features are progressively carved into second order structural form, such as plains, plateaus, eroded hills and mountainous upland containing lime stone layers at or near the surface. Virtually all lime stone formations are products of biological or chemical precipitation of calcium carbonate $CaCO_3$ from aqueous solution. They are therefore susceptible in varying degree to dissolution in surface and ground waters, particularly when such waters are charged with carbon dioxide CO_2 from vegetative sources or when the waters are under pressure. See LIMESTONE.

Factors of elimination of the factors in limestone produce a landscape unlike those resulting from other agents of land sculpture. Where a karst topography has developed, most surface water disappears quickly by entering sinkholes and other entrance ways into underground passages, and caverns that are enlarging because of the

presence d p ag f the e water M st
tr am—ge lly all b t f w t u k t eams in
the deeper valleys—are h r t n d c ce ill
d f d l l n d ab p tly nk or s allow
bles. The l e k of a r f a c t m y s t e m i r e
flected in h i l l t h o u t t h l n e d i d e a d i n
t e r r i l y h a c t e r o f m l l y t r e m e r d e d r e
g n s. T h a m e k t i s t k e n f r o m t h r e g i n a l
d e v o n t n f c a t l z o n e o f h i l l a d l w m o u n
t a i l g t h e n r i b e t e r n h o e o f t h e A d i t c
S e a l a t h e g n o f l m e t e c k t h e l a n d p e
l v e r y w b e c h c t e r d b y a p r e d m
n n e e f s o l t o m d e t o p o g r a p h y



S k h l M d C t y K D p t h t d
g r o d w t b 150 ft (U S G l g I S r v y)

Sinkhole types Tw tr ted typ f s n k
h o l e s t h d i n n d t h e p m a y b p r e n t
D l A d l e a a c h a p e d l t o
m d d e p e s i n c m m l y c l l d k h l e p e r
h y h d r e d f i e t n d m e t w i t h l c o e d
l p e s l t g e n l l y h s n p n e n t r a c t t h e
d e r g o n d a d u l l y d o e t d h g e n t
a n t r h l T h e b t t o m m y b e f i c i l y
l g g e d w i t h w t t m t a n a p d f o y a r
t h n m a v b r u p t l y l l i t s w t e e b p t
d n g l p

P n o t y p T h e g l l y r u l t f m l c a l
f l f a l u n c h m b e o o f w h e l l a p s
p o d t h e f e p o n n k h o l T h s t y p
t d t b e t e e p l y w l d m m l y w i t h b r
r o c k a d d d t o a c l a g e e n g h t h
d e l p e d t b l t y f r c k C o l e e f
h e l l p e p i m y t u l l y x p e m o t
f i t h l r m e a t t h r t h f c e w i t h
e m n t p o r t f t h o o f o m p l s
t l b r i d g e r t u e l A f e l l y w h c h
b y d n c e c e d t h f x t n g
m y h a t t a m w a l l e d d w n b y f o
m a t f a p r d t h b e c m s k i n g e k
l o s t R t r n f t h t m w t t f
d t g l k l y a l g s o m m j r r l l e y
l t h p p r u g w h h t b d
d n t a m t e d l k e p r i g f i l t e d
g r d w t

Soil lapiés and shore conditions In a kar t
topogr phy much lime t e i d i s l e d l y r a n
and l w t e r b e f o r e r f f e a c h e i n k h o l e s r
s t r e a m w a s I n o l u b l e t t u e n t l i k e c l v a n d
g r a i n d c l e r t n o d l e m a y r e m a i n n g e n t l e r
l p e a a c t i n u a l l y t h i k e n i n g c o e r o f r e d a l
l a p t l y n m e d t r r r s f r m t r e d c l

Contact f u c h l w i t h t h e d e r l y i n g l i m e
t e i g e n e r l l y h a r p d m a y b e e r y i r r e g l a r
b e a u o f v a r i n g t r c t u r e i t h e r o c k a r i a
t i o n u p p l o f w a t e r a n d a r d o b i l i t y o f
t h e r o c k I f e r n t r i p o f f t h i s i m n t l e
m t u r e k t m a y o m e t l i g h t a l u t i m a d e
u r f a c e w i t h r l e f o f a f e w i c h e s t a f e w f e e t
t h t i k w n a l p i E e n w i t h o u t a i l c e
t h a t t a c k f r a n a n d o w w a t e r c a n p r o d u c e a
k d f l p i

Sea water ex n when a t u r e d w i t h C a C O m a y
p o d u r a g g e d l a p r f a c e o n l i m e t o n e h r e
l t h a t a r e u b j e c t c t a n t w a w a h T h i s
m a y b e a r u l t o f l i g h t c h n g e i n t e m p e r a t u r e
a d p r e u r e i n b e a k i g w a e M a r n e a l g e
g w g o t h w a e w e p t u r f c m a l b e
a f i g f a t

Related features A k h l e i d d l e d u r f a c e i
n l c a r e o u s o c k m v r l t f r m e x t e n e
g n d w a t e l t i o i n u b j e c t l i m t n e r
d l o m t C o n q u e t s b i d c o f t h e o e r l y g
l b l o k i t d p r e s o c c u r w i t h l u
t i l m o l T h i m m n l y t r m e d o l u t i n
b d n c t h f i l l d i t e s n e e r a h a n g b e n
p e a n E t h e p t i l r e m o a l o f b u r i e d
b d f g y p s m d k l m y u m l r y
p o d u a o l u t a l u b d e c t o p o g r a p h y

Cyclical landform development The e q n e f
h n g i l a d f m f k a r t r g o n s f r o m n i t a
t n f s k h l t h u g h t a g f t h r i c r a
m b l g e m n t a d a l e s e c w i t h c o l
l p f e r d e n t l w s t n g w a y o f
t e r v e n g h i l l l e a s b r a d b t t o m e d l o w l a n d
(u l a) n d c a t t d u r i n g l e v t i n A l
t h g h t h i k a t y c l i s t l l u b j e t t o t h e o e t i c l
d e b t e t h c p t e e m a h d b e u e d f f e r n t
t g s f l a n d f m d e l p m n t e i d e t f i a b l e
i a s k r t f d f f g e

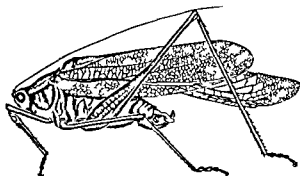
N o t w t h y k r t g a r e l t l y u o m
m i n s p t e f t e v l m e s t e t e r i s t h
l d s f t h e t h T h e b s t h o w n g s i n E r p e
e t h k r s t a e f Y u g o l i t h C a s e r e
g n f F d a C e e a d A n d a l s a
N t h A m r c n e m p l e a r f n d n t h e r n
Y u t n n t l F l r d a t h A p p a l c h n
G e t V a l l y T e s e d v g r i s u t h
r n I n d d w t c e t a l k e t u c k y J
m a P r t o R c n d C b a l o h e w e l l d
l p e d k t S C A V E G E O M O R P H O L O G Y

G R O U D W T E R W E A T H R C R O C E S S E S [J H B]
B b l g p h y A H D e r r a n d D R H o y
A s t l d p o f C u b P r t r a d J a
m T h S c i r f i M t h y O t 19 7 v l 85
n 4 W D T h n b y P r i c p l e o f C m p h l
g y 19 4 O D o n E g l n G m p h o l o g y 1942

Katydid

Any of several bright green long winged grasshoppers of the family Tettigonidae order Orthoptera. The katydids occur throughout the Northern Hemisphere. They are mainly herbivorous although there are a few carnivorous species. Katydids are rarely of any economic importance although occasionally they may defoliate trees.

The long antennae longer than the body are characteristic of the katydids and others of this family in contrast to the short antennae of the true locusts of the family Acrididae.



The forked tailed bush katydid *Scuddia furcata* length 2 in (F. M. E. L. Palmer Fieldbook of Natural History McGraw Hill 1949)

In temperate climates katydids overwinter in the egg. Eggs are usually deposited on twigs under bark or by splitting the edge of a leaf and placing the eggs in the slit. See GRASSHOPPER ORTHOPTERA [J D B]

Kelvin bridge

A specialized version of the Wheatstone bridge network designed to eliminate or greatly reduce the effect of lead and contact resistance and thus permit accurate measurement of low resistance. The circuit shown in the figure accomplishes this by effectively placing relatively high resistance ratio arms in series with the potential leads and contacts of the low resistance standards and the unknown resistance. In this circuit R_A and R_B are the main ratio resistors R and R_0 the auxiliary ratio R the unknown R the standard and R a heavy copper yoke of low resistance connected between the unknown and standard resistors.

By applying a delta wye transformation to the network consisting of R , R_0 , and R the equivalent Wheatstone bridge network shown in the illustration is obtained where

$$R = \frac{R R}{R + R + R_0}$$

$$R = \frac{R R_0}{R + R + R_0}$$

$$R = \frac{R R_0}{R + R + R_0}$$

By an analysis similar to that for the Wheatstone bridge it can be shown that for a balanced bridge

$$R = \frac{R_B}{R_A} R + R \left(\frac{R_0}{R + R_0 + R} \right) \left(\frac{R_B}{R_A} - \frac{R_0}{R} \right) \quad (1)$$

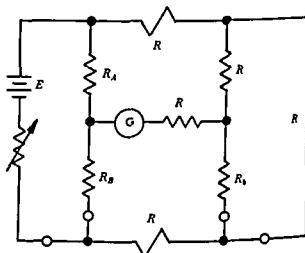
$$\text{If } \frac{R_B}{R_A} = \frac{R_0}{R} \quad (2)$$

the second term of Eq (1) is zero the measurement is independent of R_0 and

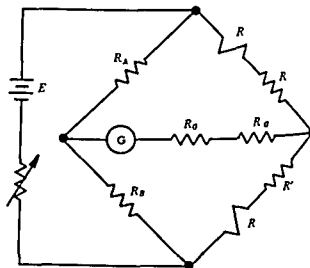
$$R = \frac{R_B}{R_A} R \quad (3)$$

As with the Wheatstone bridge the Kelvin bridge for routine engineering measurements is constructed using both adjustable ratio arms and adjustable standards. However the ratio is usually continuously adjustable over a short span and the standard is adjustable in appropriate steps to cover the required range. See WHEATSTONE BRIDGE.

Sensitivity The Kelvin bridge sensitivity can be calculated similarly to the Wheatstone bridge. The



(a)



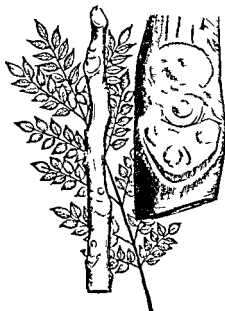
(b)

Kelvin bridge (a) Actual circuit (b) Equivalent Wheatstone bridge circuit

which vanishes because $v_0 \cdot n = 0$ on the boundary. The second integral above is a positive quantity because its integrand is everywhere positive thus proving that $T_1 > T$. See FLUID FLOW PRINCIPLES [A E BR]

Kentucky coffeetree

A large strikingly distinct tree *Gymnocladus dioica* which usually grows to 80-90 ft but sometimes attains a height of 110 ft and a diameter of



Kentucky coffeetree *Gymnocladus dioica* (A H Gaves Illustrated Guide to Trees and Shrubs Harper 1956)

5 ft. The species name *dioica* means that the tree is dioecious, that is, male and female flowers are on different individuals. It grows from eastern Nebraska Kansas and Oklahoma to southern Ontario western New York and Pennsylvania and southward to Louisiana. It can readily be recognized when in fruit by its leguminous pod containing hard heavy red brown seed which were used by early settlers as a substitute for coffee hence the name coffeetree. The branch is stout and thick and the bark has thin twisted ridge. The leaves are twice pinnate and the winter buds sunken in the bark are upper and lower three together. Never a common tree it is sometimes cultivated in park and garden of the eastern United States and northern and central Europe. It is sometimes used as a street tree. The wood is hard reddish and used for construction. It is durable in contact with the soil and is a useful railroad tie and fence post. See FOREST AND FORESTRY TRAFF [A H G]

Keratitis

Any inflammation involving the cornea of the eye. It may involve the cornea alone (keratitis) or more commonly both cornea and conjunctiva (keratoconjunctivitis). The various forms of keratitis and keratoconjunctivitis together constitute a major portion of all eye diseases. Fortunately many forms

are not severe and do not result in visual impairment nevertheless keratitis is a disease of major importance being second only to cataract and equal to glaucoma as a cause of blindness.

Corneal structure and injuries. The outer surface of the cornea is covered by a delicate membrane (epithelium) composed of flattened epithelial cells and closely resembling the mucous membrane lining the nasal passages and mouth. The substance (stroma) of the cornea is composed of interlacing layers of collagen fibrils similar to those seen in tendons ligaments and other connective tissues of the body but more regularly arranged. It is this regularity of structure that gives to the cornea its property of optical transparency. Any alteration of this structural regularity due to destruction of the epithelium or stroma or to the presence of pus edema fluid or scar formation results in an opaque region in the affected portion of the cornea.

Such an opacity will usually be temporary if the injury is limited to the epithelium but permanent if the stroma is also damaged. Although the response of the cornea to injury is similar in many respects to that of other body tissue it is modified by the fact that the normal cornea does not contain blood vessels. Blood vessels from the surrounding conjunctiva are stimulated to grow into the cornea only if injury is severe enough to cause destruction and swelling of the corneal stroma. Since scar formation requires the presence of blood vessels this means that injuries of only the epithelial membrane ordinarily heal with outarring. In such cases healing occurs by growth and spread of epithelial cells from adjacent uninjured zones over the injured area leaving little or no residual opacity. These epithelial cells have a remarkable capacity for such growth and can completely recover the entire cornea within a few days. Deeper injuries which cause ingrowth of blood vessels leave a permanent mark in the form of a scar visible as a gray white opaque region in the cornea. The degree of visual impairment is determined by the position as well as the size of the scar.

Etiology. Keratitis may be caused by mechanical injury infectious agent (bacteria virus fungus protozoa) extreme of heat or cold drying radiation or corrosion or irritating chemical allergy or may occur in association with disease affecting the entire body such as a vitamin deficiency. Keratitis is frequently accompanied by other diseases affecting the eye such as glaucoma. See CATARACT.

Since the cornea reacts to injury in almost two basic ways either by regrowth of epithelium in superficial injury or by varying degrees of scar formation in more severe injuries the degree of permanent impairment of vision is determined primarily by the extent of the injury rather than by the nature of the injury agent. Of the various agents bacteria are the most important since a cornea injured by a chemical is particularly susceptible to superimposed bacterial infection frequently resulting in damaging great rather than initial injury. See FURTHER READING [W R AB]

Keratoconjunctivitis (epidemic)

A al die e ch r t z d by n acute conjunc
u m follo ed by keratiti wh h n m e ca es
lea es r nod sup fies l opacities in the c rnea
f r o p t 2 y r l t i a l o k n w n a s h u p y a r d e y e
The u l a l a g n t d e n o i r t y p 8 Diag
is m d e b y o l a t i n f r u s f r o m u l r e
c r t i s n o c l i t e d i n t s u e l t r e r b y t h
d e m n t a t n o f n t b o d y e p o n s e s i t h e b l o d
S A T I S F Y

S p o d e s n d e p d m e h e o c c u r r d i n
m a r e u n t r i e s p r t c l r l y i n h p y a d a n d i n
d t r a l p l t s Th m o d f p r e a d i s n i p o i
t o c l y k n o n R g i d a e p i s i n m d i c a l d i o n i
u n d t a l i n t t u t s r e o m m e n d e d t p e n t
p o b l e p e a d b y m e d c a l a t t n d a n t r b y n
t r u m e t S e A D E O V I R U S A N I M A L V I R U S

[J L M]

Kerogen

A a m e g e n t o t h e c m p l x r g a n i m a t t r p r s e r
t n e r b o c e o s h l e a n d o i l h a l I t i s n
s o l b l l l e m m o f e n t b t o n d e t u c t
d i l l t y e l d s o l g s a d c i d i c d b a
c o m p n d K e r g e s f m d b y t h b h e m a l
a n d d y a m h e m i a l e n o f p l a t a n d a n i
m a l r e m i n b o t h m y b e p r e t n i r i a b l e p r o
p o r t i n I t i s t h e m t c o m m f o m o f o g a
c a r b o e a r t h a n d t h s b e t m t e d t h t
t h e s 1000 t m s m c h l g e a a l B e
a s e f i s d i r f i d o r g k e r g e a r e s n
c o m p o s i t n c o n t i f p p u m t e l y 7-83%
a b o n 5-10% h y d g e n 10-15% x y g a n d a
m a l l p r t g e o f t o g e n S e O I L S H A L E

[J A B]

Kerosine

T h r f i d p t o l e m f r a t m p l y e d a f i
f l a m p s j e t e n g n a n d m l l h t g a p p l s
a e s c h a c o k n g t o f w h i c h g l n e
t a u t a b l K n a s d t a l l d f o m t h e f r e
t n o f n r m l c r u d o i l b o l g b e t w e n 350 a n d
500 F l i r e f n d t o h a v e p c i f i c g r n y o f
a b o t 0.80 n d t m a n l i q u d t a b o u t -25 F
T h e m l m a k e u p s p t y w e l l m t e d t t h e
v i l e p r f i n a d a p h i t e (C t o C) T h
p e c f i a r e r g d t h r w i t h t h m a t e r
i l l w l l n o t p e r f r m t f a t o l y F t e
t h h y d r o c r b o n m k e p m t b e p a f f i c t
a v o d m k y B m t h c t y m u t h b u t
p o s e s t l l w t f a c t r y f e d g b y w k
t h n o f l i l m p t e w h h w o u l d
l g t h w e k m t b e l w n d t h l f u r n
t m t h b e s t h a 0.2% T o e d u e e p l o
m h a d a f h p n t f b u t 120-140 F
p e c f i e d

A r o c h a s m e l l n e o c h f l y s a
n o l p r t f e c t c d e s l i t w d e l e d a f l
f l i n g s a n d m e t m r e c i p c t g
e n g f l A b o u t 5% f l w l d d e l
p o d t n 2.75 000 000 t r l p r s o l i s
t r o y S D T I L L T E F L L P E T R O L E U M P R O D
u c t s [M S O]

Kerr effect

W h e n a s u b t a n e i p l c e d i n a n e l e c t r i c f i e l d i t
m o l e c u l e m a y b e c o m e p r i t l y o r i e n t e d T h i s m a k e
t h e s u b s t a n c e a n i s o t r o p i c a n d g i v e s i t b i r e f r i n
g e n c t h t i s t h e a b i l i t y t o r e f r a c t l i g h t d i f f e r e n t l y
i n t w d i e c t i o n T h i s e l e c t r i c a l l y i n d u c e d b i r e f r i n
g e n c e d i s c o i n e d i n 1875 b y J K e r r i s c a l l e d t h e
e l e c t r o o p t i c K e r r e f f e c t o r s i m p l y t h K e r r e f f e c t
(F r d i c u n o f t h e m g e o p o t i c K e r r e f f e c t
s e e M A G N E T O O P T I C S) T h i s e f f e c t m u t b e d i f f e r e n t
i n a t i o n f r o m t h i r f r i n g e n c e d t o m e c h a n i c a l t a n
p r o d u c e d i t i s d u e b y a n e l e c t r i c f i e l d T h e K e r r e f
f e c t c r y t a l s o m e t i m e s c a l l e d t h e P o c k e l s
e f f e c t

W h e n a l i q u i d i s p l a c e d i n a n e l e c t r i c f i e l d i t b e
h a v e s o p t i c a l l y l i k e u n i a x i a l c r y t a l w i t h t h e
o p t i c a l a x i s p a r a l l e l t o t h e e l e c t r i c f i e l d o f f o r c e
T h e K e r r e f f e c t i s u n i a x i a l l y i n d u c e d b y a n i g h t
b e t w e e n t w o o p e n p l a t e s i n s e r t e d i n g l a s s
c e l l c o n t a i n i n g t h e l i q u i d S u c h a d e v i c e i s k n o w n
a s a K e r r c e l l T h e r e a r e t w o p r i n c i p a l i n d i c e s o f
e f r a c t a n n d n (k o w n t h r d n r v n d e x
t r o d i n a r y i n d e c e) a n d t h e s u b t a n c e i s c a l l e d a
p a r t i a l l y o n g a t e l y b i r e f r i n g e n t s u b s t a n c e d e
p e n d e n t a w h e n t h e r n i s p a r t i a l l y o n e g a t i v e

L i g h t p a s s i n g t h r o u g h t h e m e d i u m n o m a t t h
l e c t l i n e o f f o r c e (t h t) p a r a l l e l t o t h e c o
d e n p l a t e s i s s p l i t i n t o t w o l i n e a r l y p l a c e d
w a s a t v e l g w i t h t h v e l o c i t y c / n a d c /
r e s p e c t i v e l y w h e r e c i s t h e v e l o c i t y o f l i g h t a d
w i t h t h e l e c t r i c e c t o r b r a t i n p e r p e n d i c u l a
n d p a r a l l e l t o t h e l i n e o f f o r c e

T h e d i f f e r e n c e i n p r o p a g a t i o n v e l o c i t y e s a
p h e n o m e n o n b e t w e e n t h e t w o w a s w h c h
f o r m n o h r m a t l i g h t o f w a e l g t h λ_0 i s
 $\delta = (-) x / \lambda_0$ w h e r e x i s t h e l n g t h o f t h e
l i g h t p a t h i n t h e m e d i u m

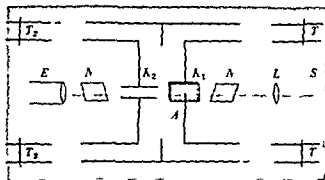
K e r r c o n s t a n t K e f o u n d e m p i r i c a l l y t h a t
(n - n) = $\lambda_0 B E$ w h e r E i s t h e e l e c t r i c f i e l d
s t r e n g t h n d B a c t e c h r a c t e r i s t i c o f t h m a
t e r i a l l i e d t h K e r r c o n s t a n t H a e l c k l a w
s t a t e s t h a $B A n_1 (n - 1) = k$ w h e n i s t h r e
f r a c t i o n d e f i n e d t h u b t a n e t h a b e e f
f i l d a d k a c s t n t c h r e s t e s t f i t h
u b t a n b t d e p e n d t o f t h w a e l n g t h λ
H o g h l y s p e a k i n g t h K e r r c o n s t a n t i n v e r s e l y
p r o p o r t i o n a l t o t h e b l i t e t e m p a t u r T h
p h s d i f f e r e n c e δ i s d e t e r m i n e d e x p e r i m e n t a l l y b y
i n t e r d e r e d i t e c h n i q u e I f t h e w a e l n g t h λ
i s e x p r e s s e d i n m i c r o n e a d t h f i e l d i n t e n g t h
E i n t t r / c m (1 s t i t = 300 V) t h e
K e r r c o n s t a n t i n c e n t r i f e r d l i d e w h c h h a s b e e n
d e t e r m i n e d n s t a c u r a t e l y i s $B = 3.226 \times 10^{-10}$
V l u o f B r g e f o m -23.00×10^{-10} f r p a l
d e h y d r a t + 346.0×10^{-10} f n t b n l

T h e t h e r y o f t h K e r r e f f e c t i s b e d n t h f a c t
t h a t n o n i d u a l m o l e c u l a n t i c t r a l l y o r
t r o p b u t h e p r m t o i s d e l e t e d i c d i
p o l T h e e l e c t r i c f i e l d i s i n t e n t h e s d i
p o l s w h i t h n r m a l t h r m l a g t a t i t d t o
d e t r o y t h r t i o n T h b l n e t h a t i t r k
d e p e n d o n t h e z f i t h d p o l e m m n t t h m a g
n i t u d e o f t h e l e t r f i e l d a d

This theory accounts well for the observed properties of the Kerr effect

In crystals which are electrically polarized there may be changes in the refractive properties that are proportional to the first power of the electric field strength (Pockels effect). Such crystals also exhibit piezoelectric properties. The situation is made more complicated by the fact that in such crystal the index of refraction is represented by a tensor of the second rank and there may be in a general case 18 linear electrooptical constants. New crystals showing the Kerr effect have been used extensively for electrooptical shutters and birefringent filters. The Kerr effect here is independent of the piezoelectric deformation of the crystal which also may produce changes in the optical behavior.

Electrooptical shutter When a Kerr cell is placed between crossed nicol prisms so that the planes of polarization are 45° inclined to the axis of the condenser no light will pass so long as the condenser is not charged. When an electric field is applied there is a rotation of the plane of polarization and light is transmitted by the second prism. Since the orientation of the molecules in the liquid on which the effect depends is effected in times of the order of magnitude 10⁻⁸ sec the shutter opens or closes in this interval. The time and duration of electrical pulses which control the shutter can be controlled by suitable electric circuits.



Kerr cell shutter (after Beams). S is the light source. λ_1 and λ_2 are crossed nicol prisms. A_1 and A_2 are crossed Kerr cells. E is a photoelectric cell. A is a spark gap. T_1 and T_2 are adjustments for the length of the wire loops.

The time to charge a condenser is usually considerably longer than 10⁻⁸ sec. J. W. Beams constructed a second version of the electrooptical shutter which can open and close abruptly. It employs two identical Kerr cells K_1 and K_2 with the axes placed at right angle. The electric double refraction in K_1 is exactly compensated by that of K_2 as long as identical fields are applied to the two condensers. The condensers are discharged suddenly through a spark gap A, but wires of different length connecting the spark gap with the condensers cause the field breakdown to arrive at different times at K_1 and K_2 . During this very short interval of imbalance light is transmitted. Kerr cell shutters have been used for the study of events requiring high time resolution. [C. H. D.]

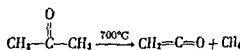
Ketene

A colorless highly reactive gas boiling point -56°C melting point -151°C. It is soluble in ether and acetone and it decomposes in water and alcohol. The ketene molecule

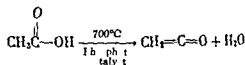


contains one of the most reactive carbon groups (>C=O) known.

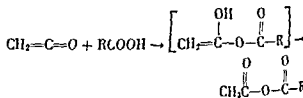
Ketene is produced by the pyrolysis of acetic acid vapor



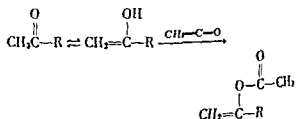
or of acetic acid vapor



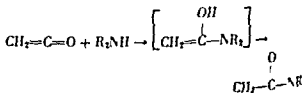
Carboxylic acids add to ketene to give acid anhydrides and this is the basis of an important commercial process for the manufacture of acetic anhydride



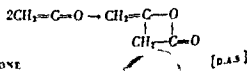
Hydride Ketene reacts with the enol form of ketenes to produce enol acetates



Molecules containing O-H or N-H bonds add to the carbonyl group for example



Dimerization of ketene to diketene occurs on storage of ketene even at low temperature



See KETONE

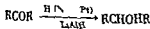
Ketone

One of a class of chemical compounds of general formula $RCOR$ where R and R are alkyl aryl or heterocyclic radicals. The groups R and R may be the same or different or incorporated into a ring as in $\text{CH}_2\text{CHCH}_2\text{C}(=\text{O})$ (cyclopentanone)

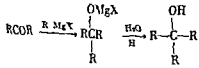
The ketones acetone and methyl ethyl ketone are used as solvents. Other ketones are important intermediates in the synthesis of organic compounds.

By common nomenclature rules, the R and R groups are named followed by the word ketone. For example $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{COCH}_2\text{CH}_3$ (diethyl ketone) $\text{CH}_3\text{COCH}(\text{CH}_3)_2$ (methyl isopropyl ketone) $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{COC}_6\text{H}_5$ (diphenyl ketone). IUPAC nomenclature uses the name of the hydrocarbon core plus the maximum number of carbon atoms in the ketone molecule followed by -one and preceded by a number designating the position of the carbonyl group in the carbon chain. Thus give the names 3-pentanone and 3-methyl-2-butanone for the first two ketones above.

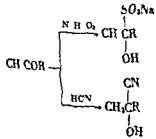
Reactions of ketones Addition to the carbonyl group is the most important type of ketone reaction. Ketones react with aldehydes in addition reactions to form methyl ketones ($R \text{ or } R' = \text{CH}_3$) are appreciably more reactive than the ketones. This is due to the steric and electronic effects of the attached groups. Hydrogen adds catalytically to the carbonyl group of aldehydes and alkenes to give the same type of product namely the secondary alcohol. The Grignard reagent adds to the carbonyl



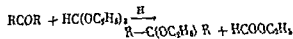
primary and secondary alcohols are formed by hydrolysis of the addition product.



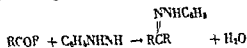
The Reimer-Tiemann reaction XZnCHCOOR reacts with hydrazine and sodium bisulfite will add to methyl ketone.



Alcohols do not add easily to the ketone carbonyl as they do to the aldehyde carbonyl, but ketals may be formed by reaction with furan.

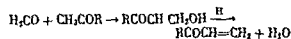


Amine derivatives such as hydroxylamine (NH_2OH) phenylhydrazine ($\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{NHNH}_2$) and semicarbazide ($\text{NH}_2\text{CONHNH}_2$) add to the carbonyl by breaking the $\text{N}-\text{H}$ bond and with subsequent loss of water. The resulting oximes phenylhydrazones and semi-

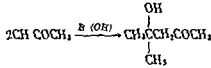


carbazones are useful derivatives for the identification and characterization of ketones.

Ketone supply alpha hydrogens in aldol type condensation reactions but can supply a carbonyl group only to a limited extent due to its lower reactivity.



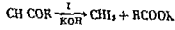
An exception is the self-condensation of acetone to diacetone alcohol.



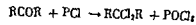
The low reactivity of ketones generally hinders more reactive carbonyl groups from reacting due to the steric hindrance of the group and to the rigidity of the ring.

Ketones are oxidized less readily and less selectively than aldehydes to give oxidation products such as carboxylic acids by cleavage of the bonds from the carbonyl carbon atom to the adjacent atom. They fail to give the Fehling's and Fehling's tests although alpha-hydroxy ketones will give the tests.

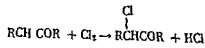
Methyl ketones give the haloform reaction with halogens in aqueous solution.



The oxygen atom of the carbonyl group of ketone may be replaced by two halogen atoms by treatment with phosphorus pentachloride PCl_5 although in general the yield is poor.

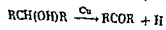


Chloroform and bromine will substitute the alpha hydrogens of ketones. The resulting alpha-halo-



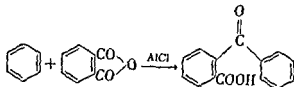
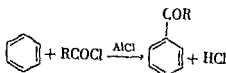
ketones are quite reactive in displacement reactions at the alpha position.

Preparation of ketones The dehydrogenation of secondary alcohols at elevated temperatures yields ketones and thus a suitable commercial method where the secondary alcohol is

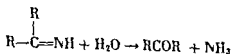
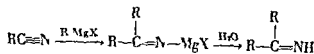


low cost as for example those obtained by olefin hydration

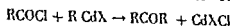
Aromatic ketones may be prepared by the Friedel Crafts reaction by acylation with acid halides or anhydrides



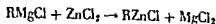
The Grignard reagent adds to nitriles to give ketones which form ketones on hydrolysis



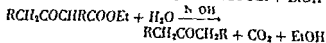
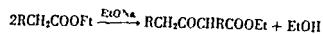
Organozinc and organocadmium reagents give ketones upon reaction with acid halides. The organometallic compounds are best prepared from the Grignard reagent and the metal halide



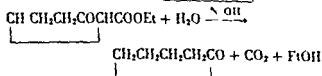
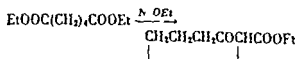
ganometallic compounds are best prepared from the Grignard reagent and the metal halide



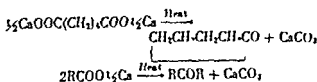
Beta ketoesters formed in the Claisen condensation are cleaved by aqueous sodium hydroxide solution to form ketones



The Dieckmann condensation of esters of dibasic acids leads in similar fashion to cyclic ketones

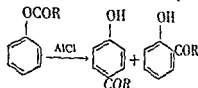


Both cyclic and open chain ketone are formed by pyrolysis of calcium or thorium salt of dibasic acids or monobasic acids



Esters of phenols rearrange when heated with aluminum chloride to form phenyl ketones (Fries

rearrangement) in which the carbonyl group is ortho or para to a phenolic hydroxyl. See Alder



HYDRE CONDENSATION REACTION FRIEDEL CRAFTS REACTION GRIGNARD REACTION HALOFORM REACTION REFORMATSKY REACTION STERIC EFFECT (CHEMICAL REACTIONS) [D 14]

Bibliography R Adams (ed.) *Organic Reactions* vol 5 and 8 1949 and 1954 C. R. Noller *Chemistry of Organic Compounds* 2nd ed 1950

Ketosis

An excessive accumulation of ketone bodies in the tissues blood and urine. Ketone bodies are acetoacetic acid, β -hydroxybutyric acid and acetone, all of which are formed by the oxidation of fatty acid by the liver. See KETONURIA

When a disturbance in carbohydrate metabolism is present, ketone bodies are produced in excess. This results when the tissue requirement for energy are not met by a readily available or utilizable supply of glucose. Fat and protein must then be mobilized to the liver which transforms the substances into glucose, a process called gluconeogenesis. In the series of biochemical shifts involved, fatty acids are oxidized in large amounts so that their normal breakdown product, the ketone bodies, accumulate. See CARBOHYDRATE CARBOHYDRATE METABOLISM GLUCOSE

The ketone bodies, by virtue of their acid properties, hold an equivalent amount of base, thus producing a form of acidosis. This is seen clinically in certain cases of diabetes in starvation, occurs usually in hyperthyroidism and in a variety of other diabetic states in which there is an absolute or relative decrease in carbohydrate availability. See THYROID GLAND DISEASE

In ketosis, the breath has a fruity odor and there is usually evidence of dehydration, weakness, malaise, headache, nausea and vomiting are common. See DISEASE PATHOLOGY [F 14]

Kidney

Pair of structures found in the dorsal region of the body cavity of animal belonging to the phylum. The organ is the major part of the work of maintaining body fluid at proper concentration and composition. Comparative study of kidney structure reveals various adaptations related to the water problem in various animals and suggests the function of the organ in the body.

The nephron. The structural unit of the kidney is the nephron. It is the functional unit of the kidney. In a typical example (Fig. 1) it is formed from the renal artery, the glomerular capillary, the loop of the glomerulus, the distal

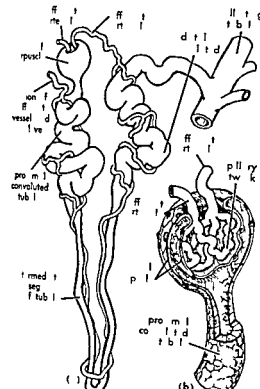


Fig 1 D g m t sh w t t f ph () E
t ph on (b) R l p l ly d c t d t
sh g l

f es a p r t of th bl d ell a d l r g
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a d j e n t p l l The e e l l a l x t c t
c e r t n b s t f m t h b l o o d d e c t e t h m
u n t h tubul Th u e t h u p o d c e d b y e c h
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Evolutionary aspect It a u m d t t t h e
e c t r s f e r t b t e w e m r f r m w i t h
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h g l m r u l A l g g l m l p e n t
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n d t h e p h p b b l y l t l h a g d
m t h n e s t l t y p H w w h e f i h r
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b l m w m t b y d f f n t a d p t t e v l
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le to the water problem Sh rk retai the l r g e
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of the cea Reptiles and birds ha e m a l l g l o m e r
e r h a d i o m e c a s p r o b a b l y a v e a d d i t i o n a l
w a t b y e c e t i g n i t o g o s w a t e s i n the f m
f a e a r l y d y p t e f u r i c a c i d c r y t a l s I n the
tubules of mammal and to a s l g h t e x t e n t i n b i r d
a l i n g t h i w a l l e d i n t e r m e d i a t e s g m t h a d e
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s m e m a m m a l s i s p t e o f t h e r t e n t o n f l a g e
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a c c t r e f h w a t e r

Embryology Altho gh neph ns are as e m b l e d
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p p b r d r f t h b o d y c a i t y (Fig 2) The f i r t
t u b u l e d e v l o p a t t h a t e r r e n d f t h i m e o d e r m
f l l o w e d b y t h e r i n s e q u e c e b e h i d V a i a
t i o s t h s p l a p m t t h e f o l l o w n g k d e y t y p e
t o b d t i n g u i h e d

H l p h s Th r i s o n e e p h r n b e s i d e e a c h
m t e l o n g t h e n t e l e g t h f t h c o l m S u p
p o e d l y t h s s t h n e a t r a l c n d i t o a d i t h u
e f e r d t o s n a c h n e p h o I t c e t o d a y
o l y i n t h l r v e f a f e w p r m t i e f i h e s t h
m y x d y e l t o m e s

P o p h s Neph s are formed only i the
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u t a t e s t h f r m t i n o f t h e a c h i p h r c d c t
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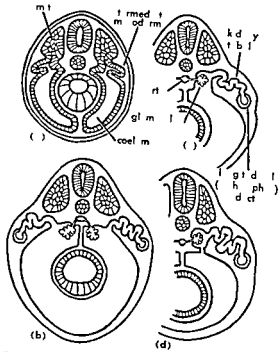


Fig 2 D g m m t c t f m b r y t h w
g f ph () E l y t g w i t h m d m d f
f t t (b-d) L t t g

in some instances they assume a stag horn shape. Calculi are sometimes harmless and silent but often cause some difficulty. They may lead to infection by eroding through the prostate epithelium depriving a faithful barrier by causing obstruction to urine flow. When a stone passes into the lumen of the ureteral mucosa it is effluents expelled to the cavity. Complications are analclic. This is often accompanied by bloody urine and the tenesmus of blood excretion. Most calculi are passed out of the body in the stool and urethra. Those which are not passed may require surgical treatment. The most frequent obstructions are found on the manure dam getting the kidney.

Infections. Most infections of the kidney are bacterial and led to the pelvis. Classification according to degree of severity as follows: pyelitis, haemolytic pelvis, simple pyelitis, pyelonephritis when the kidney is also affected and pyelitis when the pelvis is greatly dilated and filled with pus. The infection is characterized by a localized form of obstruction. In the case of a stone, the infection is associated with some form of obstruction. In the case of a stone, the infection is associated with some form of obstruction. In the case of a stone, the infection is associated with some form of obstruction.

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The infection is associated with some form of obstruction. In the case of a stone, the infection is associated with some form of obstruction. In the case of a stone, the infection is associated with some form of obstruction. In the case of a stone, the infection is associated with some form of obstruction.

Glomerulonephritis. This is a primary form of renal inflammation. It is characterized by a localized form of obstruction. In the case of a stone, the infection is associated with some form of obstruction. In the case of a stone, the infection is associated with some form of obstruction. In the case of a stone, the infection is associated with some form of obstruction.

a few die in the early stages and a few others develop chronic nephritis. Type II cases have an insidious onset with no obvious preceding infection. They manifest edema of the legs and eyelids and massive proteinuria and later hypertension. Complete recovery is rare and there is usually gradual progression to complete kidney failure over a period of several years. In the early stage the kidneys are enlarged later becoming increasingly scarred and shrunken. The glomerular tufts are first enlarged and then with later carrying and finally disappear. The remaining red blood cells and dissolved proteins which leak through the damaged glomerulus as well as precipitated protein in the form of casts in the tubules.

Nephrosis (lipoid nephrosis). This is a disease of small children. At the onset there is a gradual accumulation of tissue fluid noticed first as swelling of the eyelids and legs. There is a marked loss of protein in the urine. The ultimate level of serum albumin is inadequate to perform the normal osmotic function of pulling water from the tissue space into the blood stream hence the edema. The blood cholesterol rises to a very high level possibly as high as that of the body's attempt to compensate for the low level of protein. The renal lesions are bilateral and chiefly swelling of the walls of the glomerular capillaries. These swollen walls are exfoliated and the protein is leaked through them. The cause of this ailment is unknown although most cases are probably of the form of glomerulonephritis and related to streptococcal toxemia. Some of the children may develop a nephrotic syndrome. Other defects may be infections in which they are extremely susceptible to infection with bacteria and fungi. The disease is associated with a high degree of proteinuria and development of glomerular proteinuria with hypertension and hematuria and renal failure.

Nephrosclerosis. This term is frequently applied to kidney damage by arteriosclerosis or arteriosclerosis. Under the term are included the renal vessels of the large and small blood vessels. The disease is characterized by a localized form of obstruction. In the case of a stone, the infection is associated with some form of obstruction. In the case of a stone, the infection is associated with some form of obstruction. In the case of a stone, the infection is associated with some form of obstruction.

If detected early the prognosis is good. In the case of a stone, the infection is associated with some form of obstruction. In the case of a stone, the infection is associated with some form of obstruction. In the case of a stone, the infection is associated with some form of obstruction.

nephros is of interest also because it shows features presumed to be primitive and suggesting a series of stages in evolution of the nephron as shown in Fig 2

Mesonephros The nephrons form behind the pronephros along the middle zone of the coelom. The tubules usually become involved in sperm transport. Drainage is through the archinephric duct. The mesonephros never forms an entire adult kidney. It is functional in the chick and other amniote embryos.

Opisthonephros Nephrons develop from the middle and posterior portions of intermediate mesoderm. The middle mesonephric tubules sometimes form only a minor part. The archinephric duct may be supplemented or even replaced by ureter-like accessory drainage ducts. This is the functional adult kidney in amphibians and fishes.

Metanephros Nephrons form from only the extreme posterior part of the intermediate mesoderm and are drained by a distinctive new canal, the ureter, which grows forward from the base of the archinephric duct before the tubules have begun to develop. This is the kidney of adult reptiles, birds, and mammals. Their embryos show a distinct sequence of pro-, meso-, and metanephric kidneys (Fig 3).

Mature kidney The kidney as a whole tends to be long and straplike in fishes, lying near the mid-dorsal line and barely projecting into the coelom. In other vertebrates it is considerably shortened

and extends prominently into the posterior region of the body cavity, sometimes suspended by a mesentery. The number of tubules in one kidney varies from one to several million depending in part upon body size but also upon metabolic rate.

In all classes of vertebrates, renal arteries deliver blood to the glomeruli and tubules. Except in cyclostomes and mammals, blood also enters the kidney by way of a renal portal vein. This carries blood from the tail and posterior parts of the body into sinuses surrounding the kidney tubules, where it joins that brought by the renal artery and finally drains away through renal veins. See URINARY SYSTEM [BBO]

Kidney disorders

Probably because of their complex embryological derivation, the genitourinary organs are frequently the site of developmental abnormalities. Congenital absence of both kidneys permits only a brief postnatal life. Absence of one kidney is common and produces no symptoms, a single kidney being perfectly adequate for normal life. Horseshoe kidney, a descriptive term for fusion of the two kidneys at one pole, is not rare. Also familiar are double ureters, double pelvis, and aberrant arteries. These conditions are significant only if they produce obstruction to the flow of urine. Obstruction due to any cause leads to dilatation of the proximal structures, known as hydronephrosis if the ureter is involved or hydroureter if the kidney pelvis is affected. One characteristic form of maldevelopment is the polycystic kidney, in which both kidneys become greatly enlarged and converted into many thin-walled cysts, apparently because of a diffuse defect in development of the tubules. Persons so afflicted usually develop renal failure and die in middle adult life.

Calculi Stones in the kidney pelvis occur frequently. There is a deposition of chemicals present in urine, apparently starting in the tips of the papillae, later protruding into the renal pelvis and ultimately breaking free. There are several different chemical types of calculi occurring under different circumstances. Uric acid and urate calculi reflect excessive metabolic production of these substances and appear particularly when the person suffers from gout. Calcium oxalate calculi commonly occur if there are excessive oxalates in the diet, derived particularly from fruits and vegetables. Crystalline calcium carbonate and phosphate stones may occur when an overactive parathyroid gland increases the excretion of calcium, when too much milk is ingested, or when alkalosis is decreased. The solubility of calcium salts. Amorphous carbonates and triple phosphates are characteristically found in calculi as a result of infection and stagnation, probably being deposited around a core of pus and bacteria. Small calculi may be composed of a single component; large calculi usually are of mixed composition.

Stones may pass into the ureters when they are small or may remain in the pelvis and enlarge un-

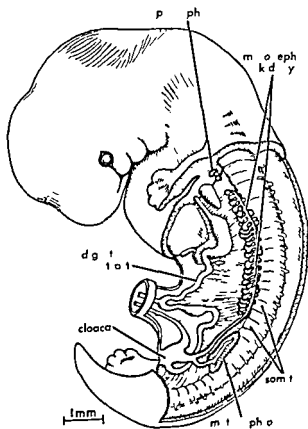
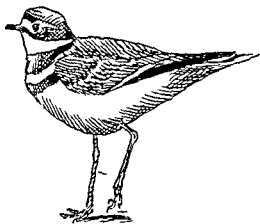


Fig 3 Human embryo of 6 weeks, dissected to show the three successive kidneys which develop in the intermediate mesoderm.

Kildeer

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lary glomerulosclerosis and is associated with marked albuminuria

Kidneys in hypertension The kidneys are almost invariably diseased when high blood pressure is present but there is not a simple cause and effect relationship. In the ordinary essential hypertension kidney tissue is often entirely normal after hypertension is well established, strongly suggesting that the lesions of nephrosclerosis are the result rather than the cause of the elevated blood pressure. Apparently the prolonged arteriolar spasm necessary to maintain the high blood pressure eventually leads to organic damage to arterioles followed by scarring of the kidneys. On the other hand it is well established that damaged renal tissue may release pressor substances capable of causing hypertension. Pressors may be produced in a kidney whose major arteries are markedly narrowed or in which pyelonephritis is present. The hypertension so produced can be eliminated by removal of the diseased kidney.

Lower nephron nephrosis This is the most widely used appellation for an extremely important acute reversible form of severe kidney shutdown. It occurs following prolonged shock and hypotension or after absorption of certain hemoglobin compounds following incompatible blood transfusion or after destructive injuries of muscle. The sequence of events following the original injury is suppression of urinary excretion usually complete followed by rising blood levels of nitrogenous wastes. After about 10 days urine excretion usually commences again but the urine first produced consists chiefly of water with relatively little nitrogen. In due time which may be as long as 2 months the renal function returns to normal. Death is not common unless the original injury is itself fatal or the patient receives too much fluid which he cannot excrete. Because of its reversibility this particular renal lesion is one of the best suited for treatment by the artificial kidney.

The renal lesions are relatively subtle and inconsistent, consisting of edema of the tissues between the tubule, heme casts in the tubules and focal injury to tubular epithelium chiefly of the distal nephron.

Renal failure When the kidneys are unable to carry on their normal functions of excreting waste and balancing the internal chemical environment of the body, renal failure is present. This may occur abruptly as in lower nephron nephrosis or obstructive disease of the urinary tract but most often develops gradually because of progressive destruction of renal tissue by disease. The sequence of events is about the same whether parenchymal destruction is the result of pyelonephritis, glomerulonephritis, nephrosclerosis or other cause.

In the early or compensated stage the kidneys lose their functional reserve that is, the ability to meet the need. The power to excrete concentrated urine when little fluid is taken in or to excrete a dilute urine when much fluid is ingested gradually disappears and the urine specific gravity ultimately

becomes fixed at 1.010, the specific gravity of an ultrafiltrate of blood serum. Similarly, nitrogenous wastes cannot be selectively concentrated but are merely washed through. Also, ability to excrete bases or acids to compensate for shifts in intake and to maintain the normal pH (7.4) of blood gradually vanishes.

In the later or decompensated stage complete excretion of certain substances is no longer possible and their blood concentrations rise. Most important of these substances are potassium, phosphates, and nitrogenous wastes such as urea and creatinine. Sodium and water accumulate in the tissues in edema fluid. Edema is also aggravated by fall in serum albumin caused both by loss in the urine and poor intake in the diet. In children with chronic renal failure the phosphate retention produces severe disturbances of calcium metabolism which sometimes results in a bone disorder called renal rickets. Anemia is usually present for several reasons, of which probably the most important is destruction of red blood cells by circulating poisons.

The end stage of renal failure is uremia. Symptoms include convulsions, vomiting, diarrhea, and coma. Lesions are found in many organs. They include fatty droplet accumulations in heart muscle, acute fibrinous pericarditis, ulcers of the intestinal tract, a white powdery frost on the skin, and edema of the brain. These changes are reversible if the renal failure can be relieved. Extent of studies have failed to pinpoint the particular poisons or poisons responsible for the individual lesion.

Cysts Single or multiple cysts with thin walls containing clear fluid are extremely common. They often result from obstruction of tubules by scars and are not important except in polycystic kidney.

Tumors There are three important malignant tumors of the kidney, all having a high mortality rate. Wilms tumor, found in infant, is made up of a mixture of small glands and of sarcoma cells particularly of muscle type. It is often termed an adenocarcinoma. The tumor usually occurs as a large abdominal mass and is rapidly fatal if untreated. Some children are cured by radiation and surgery. Renal cell carcinoma or hypernephroma grows in the renal substance of adults as a hemorrhagic yellow, usually encapsulated tumor. The first symptoms may be irregular fever, hematuria, or those of distant metastasis. Because it is in the veins early, it tends to metastasize through the bloodstream particularly to lung, brain, and bone. Metastases may appear many years after the kidney tumor has been removed. Sometime there may be solitary metastases curable by surgery. Transitional cell carcinoma arises in the epithelium of the pelvis, produces hematuria early, and tends to spread within the epithelium of the ureter. See KIDNEY METABOLIC DISORDERS, ONCOLOGY, URINARY SYSTEM.

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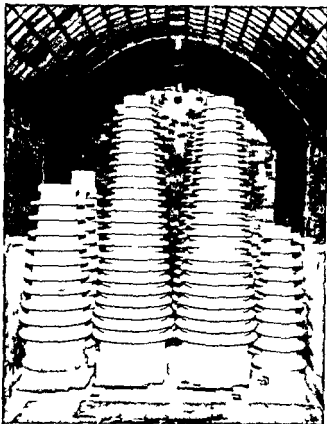


Fig 1 Interior view of a periodic kiln showing a setting of electrical porcelain insulators ready for firing (Swidell Dressler Inc)

example is heated at relatively low temperatures in kettles to form plaster of paris. See PLASTER OF PARIS. Kilns for firing formed ceramic products may be either periodic or continuous in operation.

Periodic kilns. In this type of kiln the cycle of setting ware in the kiln, heating up, soaking, or holding at peak temperature for some time, cooling, and removing or drawing the ware is repeated for each batch. Such kilns range in size from laboratory or art pottery kilns with chambers a few inches on a side to large domed structures 40–50 ft in diameter used to fire brick and other heavy clay ware. Large combustion-fired kilns are known as up or downdraft kilns depending on how the hot gases move through the kiln from firebox to ex-

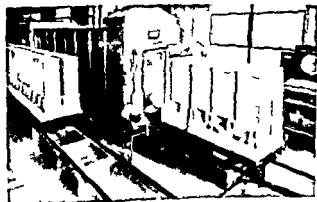


Fig 2 View of a medium-sized tunnel kiln with a feed ceramic floor tile (Swidell Dressler Inc)

haust. Periodic kilns have relatively low efficiency because the heat used to raise the kiln itself to temperature is largely thrown away each time the kiln is cooled, although some of the heat may be used to operate a drier.

Chamber kilns. This type of kiln represents the first step toward continuous firing, and it consists of a series of adjacent chambers in a ring or oval. Firing is arranged (with a movable stack) so that the fire moves from chamber to chamber around the ring, taking several days to make a complete circuit. The flues are so arranged that waste gas from the fire passes through chambers toward which the fire is moving and heats them, while the combustion air is led to the fire through chambers already fired and is preheated. The preheating of both waste and combustion air (by waste gas and cooling ware, respectively) gives a considerable increase in efficiency over the periodic kiln. Although widely used in Europe, this type of kiln was never adopted in this country.

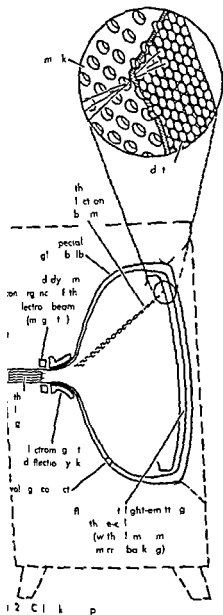
Tunnel kilns. These are long structures with the fire located near the midpoint. The kiln is designed so the temperature rises gradually from each end to a maximum in the middle. Ware is fired by loading it on cars which are pushed through the kiln, thereby subjecting the ware to a heating, soaking, and cooling cycle. Since the kiln itself remains at essentially the same temperature and only the ware and kiln cars are heated and cooled during each cycle, operating efficiency is higher, both in terms of fuel savings and of less wear and tear on the kiln. Tunnel kilns range in size from a few feet long (with a cross section a few inches on a side) to over 100 ft long (and a cross section up to 6 × 8 ft).

Muffle kiln. In this type of kiln a refractory wall or chamber prevents direct contact between the flame and the ware. It may be periodic or continuous in operation, and it is used in firing products such as high-grade dinnerware, when the price of the ware justifies the expense of a less efficient firing operation.

Kiln furniture. These are refractory shapes used for setting and supporting ware in the kiln. They include pins on which glazed ware is set and the posts and plates from which shelves are built on a kiln car.

Saggers, a type of kiln furniture, are refractory chambers or boxes in which fine ware is set for firing. They differ from muffle, which are a structural part of the kiln, in that they are set in the kiln at each firing. Besides protecting ware, they provide support for pieces which become soft at the firing temperature.

Heating. Heat for kilns may be obtained from the combustion of wood (largely obsolete), coal (becoming less common), oil or gas, or from electric heating element. Oil and gas are preferred for large manufacturing operations because they combine economy with fair rate of temperature control. When close temperature control of a high-priced product (for example, electroceramics) or when



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spaced beams. The third device is termed a shadow mask tube.

All color picture tubes are somewhat limited in light output as compared with black and white tubes by the fact that the phosphors are chosen for excellent color rather than high luminous efficiency. Some color systems have additional output limitation of the electron color tubes are usually operated at higher currents and voltage than their black and white counterparts. Although each color tube system has certain advantages, only the shadow mask type has been commercially developed for high production. Its advantages are:

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Kinesthetic sensation

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cathode ray tube construction see CATHODE RAY TUBE This article discusses construction specific to kinescopes

Deflection angle This is the maximum angle through which the electron beam must be deflected to scan the picture area. Most tubes in use today have deflection angles of 90 or 110

Focus Picture tubes are defined by the method used to focus the stream of electrons to a small spot. There are two general methods: magnetic focus using a strong external electromagnet and electrostatic focus accomplished by applying voltage differences to the electron gun electrodes. Electrostatic focus has become universal because of its lower cost.

Electromagnetic deflection The electron beam is deflected electromagnetically to cause it to scan the picture area. This deflection is accomplished by a deflecting yoke made up of two pairs of shaped coils which fit around the small neck of the picture tube (see Fig. 1). When pulsating electric currents of proper wave shape and phase are supplied to these coils, they generate magnetic fields which cause the electron beam to bend as it passes through them. By changing the magnitude and direction of the magnetic field, the electron beam can be made to arrive at any point on the face of the picture tube.

Glass envelope The glass envelope is made of a special composition to minimize optical defects and to provide electrical insulation for high voltage. It also provides protection against x-radiation and has a light absorption characteristic which improves the contrast of the picture when it is viewed in brightly illuminated locations. The structural design of the glass bulb is made to withstand

3-6 times the force of atmospheric pressure to provide a safety margin over normal atmospheric pressure. However, care must be taken in handling these evacuated glass bulbs or a dangerous explosion may result.

Aluminized screen The luminescent screen is made of a thin layer of phosphors 0.001 in. thick (3 mg/cm^2). The phosphor materials are primarily zinc cadmium sulfide (emits yellow light) and zinc sulfide (emits blue light). By careful proportioning and mixing of the two phosphors, the resultant emanation is a blue-white light which most manufacturers have adjusted to a color temperature of between 9000 and 12 000 K.

The luminescent screen is aluminized by vacuum evaporation from a small molten aluminum pellet. The thin layer of aluminum, approximately 2000 Å, is deposited on a smooth plastic film placed on top of the luminescent screen. The plastic film is subsequently volatilized and removed in the high temperature processing of the tube. In the operation of the completed tube, the high velocity electron beam penetrates the aluminum film and its energy is transferred primarily to the luminescent screen. Only a small percentage (10-20%) of the electron beam energy is converted into useful light energy, but even this amount is sufficient to produce brightnesses of several hundred foot-lamberts in the picture highlights. The reflection of light by the aluminum mirror increases the picture brightness and improves picture contrast by preventing stray light from illuminating the back side of the luminescent screen.

Wall coating Graphite coating is placed on the inside walls of the bulb to provide electrically conducting surfaces between the screen and the electron gun and to provide a unipotential field through which the electron beam may travel without being disturbed by stray electrostatic fields. Graphite is a sufficiently poor conductor to minimize eddy current power absorption from the electromagnetic fields generated by the external deflection yoke.

Electron gun The electron gun produces a stream of high velocity electrons which are focused to a small spot at the screen. In currently used commercial tubes, the spot produced by the electron beam at the screen is approximately 0.025-0.125 in. in diameter depending on beam current required (usually 50-1000 microamperes). The beam current is controlled by an electrical signal supplied to the cathode with respect to grid No. 1, called cathode drive or grid No. 1 with respect to the cathode, called grid drive. Conventional tubes require 50-15% of signal to modulate the beam from zero beam current (picture dark) to maximum beam current (picture high light).

Transistorized portable battery-operated TV receivers, picture tubes requiring less signal voltage, much less power for deflection of the electron beam, and smaller amounts of power to heat the cathode from which the electrons are emitted.

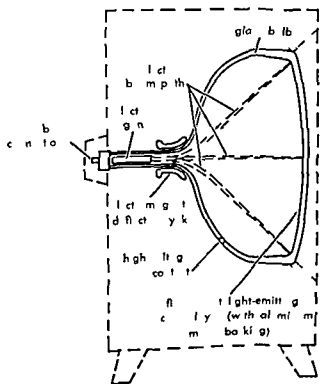


Fig. 1 Black-and-white kinescope

d tributi n f nction The main purpo e of kinetic theory is to deduc f om the t t t cal d cr p t n r lla al d f o th wh le sy tem The d s j nct bet een kinetic theory and stati cal mechanics is th f nec tory arbitrary and ague H t rically k etu the ry s the olde t stat sti al discipl n Today a k n t i c l e u l a t o n r e f e r s t a n y c a l c u l a t o n w h c h p r o b a b i l i t y m e t h o d s m o d e l s , r d t r i b t n f u n c t i o n s a r e n o l v e d

F r i n f r m a t n h i h i s r e l a t d t o a n d u p p l e m s i s t h e p r e s e n t r t c l e s e e S T A T I S T I C A L M E C H A N I C S s e e a l o B O L T Z M A N S T A T I S T I C S B O L T Z M A N S T A T I S T I C S Q U A N T U M S T A T I S T I C S

Classes of problems kinetic calc l t o n a r n t r e e d t e d g a s e s b u t o c r n c h e m c a l p o b l e m s o l d s t a t p r o b l e m s a n d p r o b l e m s i n r d a t a t h e o r y E e n t h o g h t f g e n e r a l p r e d u r e i t h s e d f f e r e n t a r e a s a r e i m p l a t h e r e a e a u f f i c i e n t n u m b e r f i m p o r t a n t d f f e r e n c e s t o m a k e a g e n e r a l l a s e a t u e f f i

Classical d o l e q u i l b r i m p o b l e m s I n t h e e t h e r e e o i t a t i o n b e t w e e n t h e n t i t u t o n o f t h s y s t e m T h s y s t e m i s q u i l b r m a n d t h e m e c h a n i c a l f e r n g n g t h s y s t e m r e c l a a l T h e b i n f o r m a t i o n i s c o t a n e d i n t h e B o l t z m a n d t r i b u t f (a l c a l l d M a w e l l e r M a x W e l l b i t u m n n d t r i b u t i) w h h g e t h e n b b g e (p a r t l e i g e m o m e n t u m a n d p o t e n t i a l) o f d x = d d y d z = d t d d w h e x y z a n d a e c o o d i n a t e s f o r t o a d d i t a d e c o o d i n a t e s o f l o c a l i t y

$f(x, y, z) = A e^{-\beta \epsilon}$ (1)
H i s t h e n e g y n d $\beta = 1/kT$ (w h e k i s t h B o l t z m a n c o n s t a n t a n d T i s t h a b s o l u t e t e m p e r a t u r e) a n d A a c o n s t a n t d e t e r m i n e d f m (2)

$\int f^2 d^3x = \lambda$ total n u m b e r f p a r t i c l e s (2)
T h e l e u l i f g a s p r e e p i s h e a t a n d t h l c a l e q u p r t i n t h e o r e m e a l l b a e d n t h s e l t i n

C l a s s i c a l q u i l b r i m p o b l e m M a y i m p o r t a n t p h y a l p o p e t r e f e r t t q l b m b i t n q u i l i u m r a t e s P h m e a b t h m i c d t t y t y a n d e l e c t r o n d i t t y l l e r q u e a d c o n t a r t g f m t h B o l t z m a n t p o t q a t i o

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial t} + \nabla f \cdot \mathbf{v} + \mathbf{v} \cdot \nabla f = \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial t} \right)_{coll} \quad (3)$$

$\chi = f r e p e n t m = h a g n f d$
I f o e d a l w t h t t e t h a t e q l b m t h x c t B o l t z m e q a t a n d t h e s o l d b i t t f i n t d e b e t h n e t r y t a t a s m a l l p e r t b t n p r o p o s e d a e q l b r i u m t e E t h g h t h e g u d u n f t h o q l b m p o c e n e d f i l l a p p a l t m p l e p h y a l p o c e f e q u i l d e t q u i t t i b l e x p r e s s n t e r m i t h q u l b m d t i b t f t i O f t h e i m p o r t a n t t h e m p l o f t h o c a l l e d

electron gas in a metal The kinetic treatment of this system forms the basis for the classical (Lorentz) conductivity theory For rates far from equilibrium n g n e r a l s i m p l e t h e o r y e x i s t s

Classical n n d e a l e q u i l b r u m t h e o r y The basic classical procedure for arbitrary systems (systems with interaction taken into account) that allows the calculation of macroscopic entities is that using the partition function

$$Z = \frac{1}{h^3} \int \int d^3x_1 \dots d^3x_N e^{-(1/kT)U(x_1, \dots, x_N)} \quad (3a)$$

where $\lambda = h/\sqrt{2\pi m k T}$ Here ψ is the thermodynamic free energy and h is Planck's constant Although Eq (3) is written thus it may be applied to gases the partition function may also be written for classical spin systems such as ferromagnets

l i d p a r a m a g n e t i c o l d a n d t h e l i k e T h m a t h e m a t i c a l p r o b l e m s f e l u a t n g t h e i n t e g r a l o r t h e u m a r e d f f i l e E q u a t n (3a) w i t h a p p r o p r i a t m d f i c a t i n i s t h e s t r t g p o i n t f r a l l t h e s e o i d r a t n s

Classical nonid l o e q u i l b r i u m t h e o r y This is the most general situation that classical statistics can describe In general very little is known about the systems The Liouville equation applies and has been used as a starting point for the study of the nonperturbative results have yet been obtained For studies of the liquid state however the results have been quite promising

Q u a n t u m p o b l e m The e a r q u a n t u m i n t e r p r e t t o t h e c l a s s i f i c a t i o n j u t d s c r i b e d I a q u a n t u m t a t m t a d t r i b t o f u t n s a l u d f a n i d e a l y t e m n e q u i l b r u m t o d e s c r i b e t g n a l p r o p e r t i e s F u n c t i o n s o f p a r t i c l e s h i h m u t b d e r i b e d b y s y m m e t r i l w a e f t i o n s h a s h e l u m a t m s a d p h o t o n s o n e h a s

$$f(\epsilon) = \frac{1}{(1/A)e^{\beta \epsilon} - 1} \quad (4)$$

w h e t h B o e d s t r b u t $\beta = 1/kT$ a n d A i s d e t r m i n d b y E q () S B O S E E I N S T E I N S T A T I S T I C S F u n c t i o n o f p a r t i c l e w h h m u t b d e r i b e d b y a t s y m m e t r i c l w f n t s h a s e l c t r p r t o s a d n u t o h

$$f(\epsilon) = \frac{1}{(1/A)e^{\beta \epsilon} + 1} \quad (5)$$

U f t h e f n t n n l i t i n s c t u l l y n t y d f f n t f m t h e o f t h c l a s c a l d e b u t o f c t o b t t h e r e s l t a r q u i t e d f f e e n t a t h e a a l s t l d t a l s A s n t h l s l a t h t r e t m t t h n e q u i l b r u m a t t e c a n b e d e d t o a t r t m e n t n o l g t h e e q l b r u m d t b t n n l y T h e a p p l i c a t i o n t o l e t r o n s a (i d e a l) F m D r a g a n m e t l t h b a o f t h S o m m e r f i d t h e o r y f m e t a l (s e e F R E E E L E C T R O N T H E O R Y O F M E T A L S)

tors at or near bony articulations. The most crucial evidence comes from abnormalities. Joint sensibility may be retained in the presence of muscular and cutaneous anesthesia of the same region. The converse also occurs, such as retention of sensibility of skin and muscle but failure to discriminate passive movement of the limb because articular sensitivity has been impaired.

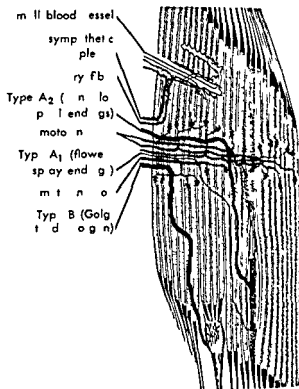
Kinesthetic receptors. Four types of sensory nerve ending are involved in the appreciation of bodily movement. They are (1) free nerve endings, (2) Pacinian corpuscles, (3) Golgi tendon organs, and (4) muscle spindles.

Free endings. These are the most commonly occurring sensory nerve terminations in the body. They are found in deep tissues—subcutaneous layers, fascia (muscle sheath), periosteum (bone covering)—as well as at the cutaneous level where their distribution is almost ubiquitous and where endings of neighboring nerve fibers overlap and interdigitate with one another in some profusion. The presumption is that it is the free endings of the periosteum and the fascia that contribute so heavily to kinesthetic sensation, though this is by no means firmly established. Free nerve endings are also suspected as initiators of pain, which can be most exquisite in the periosteal and fascial regions.

Pacinian corpuscles. Pacinian corpuscles are the largest of the specialized sensory nerve endings in the body, being situated suitably to serve as kinesthetic receptors. They are found in the sheaths covering muscles and tendons and are scattered through deep fatty tissue. Relatively few in number, they are encapsulated, consisting of many concentric layers of fibrous tissue containing nerve endings. They are attached to large diameter sensory fibers and are known to respond to any nearby distorting force, whether it be muscular contraction or mechanical deformation transmitted from the body surface.

Golgi tendon organs. These organs, situated near the junction of muscle fibers and tendon, would seem to be most advantageously placed to report on muscle movement. Recordings of electrical changes in their attached fibers show them to signal both muscle stretch and active contraction. Impulse frequency has been found to be roughly proportional to the common logarithm of the tension imposed on the tendon. Golgi organs may therefore be thought of as muscle tension recorders.

Muscle spindles. The most complexly organized of the kinesthetic receptors are the muscle spindles, which have two distinctly different kinds of terminations. These have been designated Type A₁ (flower-spray endings) and Type A₂ (annulo spiral endings) by the British physiologist B. H. C. Matthews, who originally described them. Typically, A₁ fibers are of smaller diameter and are therefore slower conducting than A₂ fibers. Both types initiate impulses when their muscle bundle is stretched and generally cease firing impulses when the muscle contracts. The fibers leading from muscle spindles therefore have been termed stretch afferents. Type



Nerve endings in muscle sensation (J. F. Fulton, *Physiology of the Nervous System*, 2d ed., Oxford, 1943)

A₂ additionally generates kinesthetic impulses when its muscle is very strongly contracted.

Kinesthetic discriminations. Since it is the receptors situated in the neighborhood of bony articulations that supply the most exact information about bodily movement, the finest kinesthetic discriminations are associated with joint displacements. Measurement of the ability to discriminate such movements is accomplished by arranging for a limb or appendage to be moved mechanically and passively at a uniform rate, and the least detectable amount of movement based solely on feel is determined. In such experiments, it is typically found that the greatest sensitivity is associated with the larger joints (hip and shoulder), while the least is found in the ankle and toes. At a speed of displacement of 10°/min, thresholds vary roughly between 0.2° (hip) and 0.7° (main joint of big toe).

Since appreciation of postural change seems to depend mainly on articular sensitivity, the roles of muscles and tendons must be secondary in kinesthesis. Muscular and tendinous sensitivities presumably add feelings of strain when resistance to limb movement is encountered, as in lifting weight or pushing against stationary objects. See SOMMERHUIS [FAC]

Kinetic theory of matter

A theory which states that the particles of matter in all states of aggregation are in vigorous motion. In computation involving kinetic theory, the methods of statistical mechanics are applied to specific physical systems. The atomistic or molecular structure of the system involved is assumed, and the system is then described in terms of appropriate

In quantum theory nonideal systems in equilibrium are described in terms of the quantum partition function

$$Z_g = \sum e^{-E/kT} = e^{-\psi/kT} \quad (6)$$

Here E indicates the energy levels of the system and g indicates the weights of the e levels. If one defines a Slater sum by

$$S(x_1, \dots, x_N) = \sum e^{-E/kT} |U(x_1, \dots, x_N)|^2 \quad (7)$$

where $U(x_1, \dots, x_N)$ is the wave function of the state n , Z_g may be written as an integral similar to Z

$$Z_g = \int \int d^3x_1 \dots d^3x_N S(x_1, \dots, x_N) \quad (8)$$

For the applications the energy levels and the wave functions must be known. In the evaluation of S given by Eq. (7) the symmetry character of the wave functions must be explicitly introduced. It is sometimes easier to use the grand partition function

$$Z_m = \sum_N \sum e^{(\mu N - E_N)/kT} \quad (9)$$

Here μ is the chemical potential and E_N is the N th level of a system having N particles. The current theories of quantum statistics, as for example the hard sphere Bose gas, are for the most part concerned with questions in this area.

The only technique now available is that of the density matrix. It is possible to express certain entities which characterize transport properties, such as the conductivity tensor, in terms of the unperturbed stationary density matrix. A complete discussion of the validity of the approximations is still lacking. In addition, once the conductivity tensor is obtained in terms of the density matrix of the stationary (but still interacting) system, a problem of the same order of difficulty as the evaluation of the quantum mechanical partition function remains. If explicit expressions for the quantities in terms of the forces between atoms are desired.

Classical examples. Kinetic theory gave the first insight into many of the phenomena that take place in gases as well as in metal, where the free (conduction) electrons can be considered as an ideal gas of electrons. The following example illustrates some of the more fundamental calculations that have been made.

Ideal gas pressure. A classical ideal gas is described by the Boltzmann distribution of Eq. (1) (see Gas). The constant A is given by

$$A = \frac{N}{V} \left(\frac{m\beta}{2\pi} \right)^{3/2} \quad (10)$$

where m is the mass of an individual molecule and V is the total volume of the gas. A gas exerts a force on the wall by virtue of the fact that the molecules are reflected by it. The component of momentum normal to the wall changes its sign as a consequence

of this collision. Hence if the normal velocity of the molecule is v , the momentum given off to the wall is $2mv$. To calculate the total force on a wall one needs the total momentum transferred to the wall per unit time. Let dS be a small section of the wall, and call θ the angle made by the molecule's velocity vector with the normal to dS (see Fig. 1). From Eq. (1) the number of molecules that have a speed $c = (v_x^2 + v_y^2 + v_z^2)^{1/2}$ and whose velocity vector makes an angle θ with a given axis (call these θ molecules) is

$$f(c, \theta) = 2\pi A e^{-1/2 m c^2} \sin \theta d\theta dc \quad (11)$$

The number of such molecules that in time dt will collide with dS (assuming spatial homogeneity) is given by

$$dS c \cos \theta dt f(c, \theta) \quad (11a)$$

From this information an interesting ideal result may be calculated, namely that the number of all collisions with a unit area of the wall per second is

$$2\pi A \int_0^\infty \int_0^{1/2} d\theta \sin \theta \cos \theta \int_0^\infty dc c^3 e^{-1/2 m c^2} \quad (12)$$

If one introduces the average speed \bar{c} as

$$\bar{c} = \frac{1}{N} \iint d^3x d^3v c f \quad (12a)$$

the total number of collisions may be written as $\frac{1}{4} n \bar{c}$. Here $n = N/V$ is the number density. This relation is of importance in calculating the efflux of gases through orifices. Each (c, θ) molecule contributes a momentum of $2mc \cos \theta$ to the wall per collision. Since the pressure p is given by the force per unit area, or the total momentum transferred per unit time per unit area, one obtains for p

$$p = \int_0^\infty \int_0^{1/2} 2mc \cos \theta \cdot 2\pi A c \cos \theta e^{-1/2 m c^2} \sin \theta d\theta dc \quad (13)$$

$$p = \frac{1}{2} N m \bar{c}^2 = (N/V) \beta^{-1} \quad (14)$$

Since it is known experimentally that $pV = NkT$, where k is the Boltzmann constant $\beta = 1/kT$, this pressure calculation is a typical example of a kinetic theory calculation.

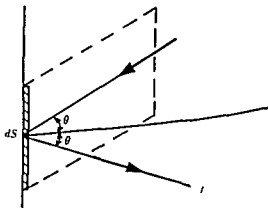


Fig. 1. Change of momentum of gas molecule as it strikes a wall; θ is the angle of incidence; θ is the angle of reflection.

It is a fact that a relaxation time describes the decay from a state so near an equilibrium state that the molecules have travelled (on the average) one or more free paths the equilibrium is re-established. Stated differently the no equilibrium state is the average collision per molecule remaining with equilibrium state.

Equation (28) may now be evaluated in terms of the mean free path as

$$\text{Force per unit area} = \frac{1}{2} n m \bar{c} \frac{dc}{dy}$$

From this, the viscosity coefficient follows directly

$$\eta = \frac{1}{2} n m \bar{c} \lambda \quad (33)$$

Introducing the mean free path as given by Eq (30) one obtains

$$\eta = \frac{1}{3} \frac{m \bar{c}}{4 \pi} \quad (33b)$$

The remarkable result is that the viscosity is independent of the pressure S_c

$$= \sqrt{8 k T / \pi m}$$

the only dependence is on temperature but not on pressure. This is somewhat intuitively result of the first triumph of kinetic theory. Both parts of Eq (33) are in good agreement with the experimental data. The only dependence of the pressure η also proportional to the square root of the temperature [MOR]

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Kinetics (chemical)

The branch of physical chemistry concerned with the mechanisms and rates of chemical reactions. The study of reaction rates is of great importance in many branches of chemistry and physics.

Reaction rate. The rate at which a chemical reaction proceeds or at which a chemical product is formed is an important physical property. It is often expressed in terms of the change in concentration of a reactant or product per unit time. The rate of a reaction is determined by the rate of the competing reactions. The effect of temperature, pressure, and concentration on the rate of a reaction is studied in chemical kinetics.

Rate of reaction. The physical rate of a reaction is the change in concentration of a reactant or product per unit time. The rate of a reaction is determined by the rate of the competing reactions. The effect of temperature, pressure, and concentration on the rate of a reaction is studied in chemical kinetics.

$$-\frac{d}{dt} = k c_A \quad (1)$$

where $-dc_A/dt$ is the rate of decrease in concentration of A with time t . The rate of change will decrease as A is used up and its concentration decreases but the rate will always be proportional to the concentration. Thus if k has a value of 0.01 per minute l^{-1} of A which is present at any time t will react per minute. Over long periods of time the concentration will be changing during the time interval and it is necessary to integrate the equation. Thus

$$k = \frac{2.303}{t_2 - t_1} \log \frac{c_A}{c_A} \quad (2)$$

where c_A is the concentration at time t_1 and c_A is the concentration at time t_2 . Thus it is possible to determine the rate constant k from measurements of the concentration of A at two different times. When the rate constant has been evaluated by experimental measurements or by theoretical calculations it is possible to calculate accurately the concentration c_A at any later time when it is known at one time. Frequently the known concentration c_A is taken as the initial concentration starting at zero time.

Order of reaction. The order of reaction depends on the exponent of the concentration which determines the rate of the reaction. Thus in Eq (1) the reaction is first order in the type of reaction which depends on the collision of two molecules $A + A \rightarrow A$ the rate given by the formula

$$-\frac{dc_A}{dt} = k c_A^2 \quad (3)$$

Such a reaction is called a second order reaction. If the reaction is $A + B \rightarrow AB$ the rate of the reaction may be given by the relation

$$-\frac{dA}{dt} = -\frac{dB}{dt} = \frac{dAB}{dt} = k c_A c_B \quad (4)$$

The reaction is first order with respect to A and first order with respect to B but the overall reaction is said to be second order. The reaction order is equal to the sum of the powers of the concentration terms of all the reactants in the first order reaction k is a dimensionless ratio and is independent of the units of concentration used. In a second order reaction which depends on the product of the concentration on the constant k includes the units of the concentration. Its numerical value depends on the concentration unit used such as moles per liter.

When the time interval is large it is necessary to integrate the formula. Thus Eq (3) becomes

$$k = \frac{1}{t} \frac{x}{(-x)} \quad (5)$$

and Eq (4) becomes

$$k = \frac{2.303}{t(-b)} \log \frac{b(-x)}{a(b-x)} \quad (6)$$

In the case of Boltzmann statistics use of Eqs (1) (2) (10) and (24) gives

$$j = \frac{Ne^2\tau}{m} E \quad (25a)$$

The conductivity $\sigma = Ne^2\tau/m$ cannot be compared with experiment unless the relaxation time τ is known. In the Fermi case the evaluation of Eq (24) is facilitated by observing that $\partial f_0/\partial \epsilon$ has a δ function character. Call $A = e^{\beta\epsilon}$ so that Eq (5) reads

$$f_0 = \frac{1}{e^{\beta(\epsilon - \mu)} + 1} \quad (25b)$$

It is easy to show from (25b) that

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \epsilon} \frac{1}{e^{\beta(\epsilon - \mu)} + 1} \approx -\delta(\epsilon - \mu) \quad (26)$$

for sufficiently low temperatures. This allows the immediate calculation of Eq (24) also for the case in which the relaxation time depends on the velocity.

Viscosity and mean free path. One of the early successes of kinetic theory was the explanation of the viscosity of a gas. Strictly speaking this is again a transport property and as such it should be obtained from the Boltzmann transport equation (20). It is possible however to give an elementary discussion. Consider a gas that is contained between two walls or plates the lower one ($y = 0$) at rest and the upper one constrained to move with a given velocity in the x direction (see Fig. 2). A force is necessary to maintain the constant velocity of the plate. This force is given by

$$X = \eta A \frac{dv}{dy} \quad (27)$$

Here dv/dy is the velocity gradient and X is the viscous force (also sometimes called the shear stress) on the area A which is perpendicular to the diagram (X is the component of \mathbf{X} in the x direction). Equation (27) defines η the viscosity.

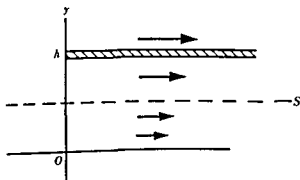


Fig. 2. Evaluation of viscosity. The plate at $y = h$ is moving with velocity v . The plate at $y = 0$ is stationary. The horizontal component of velocity of the gas molecules as a function of y from $y = 0$ to $y = h$. Momentum must be exchanged between the plates. The effective component of velocity

coefficient. The physical reason for this force stems from the fact that molecules above the surface S have a greater flow velocity than those below the surface. (This will certainly be true on the average.) Thus molecules crossing from above to below will carry a larger amount of momentum in the positive x direction than those crossing from below S upwards. Hence the net effect is a transport of momentum in the x direction across the surface. By Newton's second law this will yield a force. The computation can be carried out in this manner. Consider an area in the x plane. The number of molecules passing through per second is $f v_y A$ where f is the distribution function. The amount of momentum transported in the x direction is (per collision) $f v_y A m v_x$.

The force per unit area is the sum of these terms

$$f v_y m \quad (28)$$

For the evaluation of this sum the notion of mean free path is useful. The mean free path is the average distance traveled by a molecule between collisions and is usually designated by λ . To investigate this entity imagine each molecule to be a hard sphere with radius a . If a molecule moves with average speed \bar{c} it sweeps out a volume $4\pi a^2 \bar{c} t$ in time t . If there are $n = N/V$ molecules per unit volume the number of collisions per second is given by the collision frequency z

$$z = n 4\pi a^2 \bar{c} \quad (29)$$

For a typical gas (oxygen) under standard conditions $n = 3 \times 10^{20}$, $\bar{c} = 45 \times 10^3$ cm/sec and $a \approx 1.8 \times 10^{-8}$ cm. Hence numerically $z = 5.5 \times 10^9$ collisions/sec. The average distance between collisions that is the mean free path is

$$\lambda = \frac{\bar{c} t}{n (4\pi a^2) \bar{c} t} = \frac{1}{n (4\pi a^2)} \quad (30)$$

Numerically $\lambda \approx 8 \times 10^{-8}$ cm. This discussion is of course exceedingly crude. Making the calculation on the basis of a Boltzmann distribution gives

$$\lambda = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2} n (4\pi a^2)} \quad (30a)$$

Using similar methods it may be shown that the distribution of the mean free paths (that is the number of molecules whose mean free path lies between x and $x + dx$) is

$$dN = \frac{N_0}{\lambda} e^{-x/\lambda} dx \quad (31)$$

There is an interesting connection between the mean free path and the relaxation time introduced previously. It should be stressed however that this connection follows more from a qualitative discussion than from a rigorous calculation. One would guess that

$$\tau = \lambda / \bar{c} \quad (31)$$

In the case of Boltzmann statistics use of Eq (1) (2) (10) and (24) gives

$$j = \frac{\Lambda e^2 \tau}{m} E \quad (25a)$$

The conductivity $\sigma = Ne \tau/m$ cannot be compared with experiment unless the relaxation time τ is known. In the Fermi case the evaluation of Eq (24) is facilitated by observing that $\partial f_0 / \partial \epsilon$ has a δ function character. Call $A = e^{\beta(\epsilon - \mu)}$ so that Eq (5) reads

$$f_0 = \frac{1}{e^{\beta(\epsilon - \mu)} + 1} \quad (25b)$$

It is easy to show from (25b) that

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \epsilon} \frac{1}{e^{\beta(\epsilon - \mu)} + 1} \cong -\delta(\epsilon - \mu) \quad (26)$$

for sufficiently low temperatures. This allows the immediate calculation of Eq (24) also for the case in which the relaxation time depends on the velocity.

Viscosity and mean free path. One of the early successes of kinetic theory was the explanation of the viscosity of a gas. Strictly speaking this is again a transport property and as such it should be obtained from the Boltzmann transport equation (20). It is possible however to give an elementary discussion. Consider a gas that is contained between two walls or plates, the lower one ($y = 0$) at rest and the upper one constrained to move with a given velocity in the x direction (see Fig 2). A force is necessary to maintain the constant velocity of the plate. This force is given by

$$\lambda = \eta A \frac{dv}{dy} \quad (27)$$

Here dv/dy is the velocity gradient and λ is the viscous force (also sometimes called the shear stress) on the area A which is perpendicular to the diagram (X is the component of λ in the x direction). Equation (27) defines η the viscosity

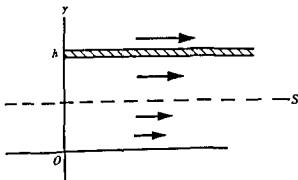


Fig 2 Explanation of viscosity. The plate at $y = h$ moves with velocity v and the plate at $y = 0$ is stationary. The horizontal component of velocity of the gas molecules varies from 0 at $y = 0$ to v at $y = h$. Momentum must therefore be transferred across S by the vertical component of velocity.

coefficient. The physical reason for the force term from the fact that molecules above the surface S have a greater flow velocity than those below this surface (This will certainly be true on the average.) Thus molecules crossing from above to below will carry a larger amount of momentum in the positive x direction than those crossing from below S upwards. Hence the net effect is a transport of momentum in the x direction across the surface. By Newton's second law this will yield a force. The computation can be carried out in the same manner. Consider an area in the xy plane. The number of molecules passing through per second is $\int v_y A$, where f is the distribution function. The amount of momentum transported in the x direction is (per collision) $\int v_y A m$.

The force per unit area is the sum of the terms

$$\int v_y m \quad (28)$$

For the evaluation of this sum the notion of mean free path is useful. The mean free path is the average distance traveled by a molecule between collisions and is usually designated by λ . To investigate this entity, imagine each molecule to be a hard sphere with radius a . If a molecule moves with average speed \bar{c} , it sweeps out a volume $\pi a^2 \bar{c} t$ in time t . If there are $n = N/V$ molecules per unit volume, the number of collisions per second is given by the collision frequency

$$= n \pi a^2 \bar{c} \quad (29)$$

For a typical gas (oxygen) under standard conditions $n \approx 3 \times 10^{25}$, $\bar{c} \approx 450$ cm/sec, and $a \approx 1.8 \times 10^{-8}$ cm. Hence numerically $\lambda \approx 5.5 \times 10^{-7}$ cm. The average distance between collisions that is the mean free path is

$$\lambda = \frac{\bar{c} t}{n \pi a^2 \bar{c} t} = \frac{1}{n \pi a^2} \quad (30)$$

Numerically $\lambda \approx 8 \times 10^{-7}$ cm. This discussion is of course exceedingly crude. Making the calculation on the basis of a Boltzmann distribution gives

$$\lambda = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2} n \pi a^2} \quad (30a)$$

Using similar method it may be shown that the distribution of the mean free path (that is the number of molecules whose mean free path lies between x and $x + dx$) is

$$dN = \frac{N_0}{\lambda} e^{-x/\lambda} dx \quad (31)$$

There is an interesting connection between the mean free path and the relaxation time introduced previously. It should be stressed however that this connection follows from a qualitative discussion. In the more rigorous calculation one would guess that

$$= \lambda / c \quad (32)$$

It means that a relaxation time describes the decay from a state near an equilibrium state to when the molecules have travelled (on the average) on mean free path the equilibrium is re-established. It is therefore the mean equilibrium state. On the average, one collision per molecule removed from the equilibrium state.

Equation (8) may now be evaluated in terms of the mean free path λ

$$\text{Force per unit area} = \frac{1}{2} n m \lambda c \frac{d}{dt}$$

From this, the viscosity coefficient follows directly

$$\eta = \frac{1}{2} n m \lambda c \quad (33a)$$

Introducing the mean free path as given by Eq (30) we see that

$$\eta = \frac{1}{3} \frac{m c}{4 \pi a^2} \quad (33b)$$

The remarkable result is that the viscosity is independent of the pressure. Since

$$c = \sqrt{8kT/\pi m}$$

the viscosity depends on the temperature but not on the pressure. This somewhat intuitive result was one of the first triumphs of kinetic theory. Both aspects of Eq (33) represent good agreement with experimental facts not too low densities η is indeed independent of the pressure. η is also proportional to the square root of the temperature. [MOR]

Bibliography: H. H. Fowler, *Statistical Mechanics*, 2nd ed. 1936; D. Ter Haar, *Elementary Statistical Mechanics*, 1954; C. Kittel, *Elementary Statistical Physics*, 1958; *Statistical Mechanics*.

Kinetics (chemical)

The branch of physical chemistry concerned with the mechanism and rates of chemical reactions. The study of action on rates of reactions is also an important topic in chemical kinetics.

Reaction rate. The rate at which chemical reactants are used up or the whole chemical products are formed. It is an important property particularly in chemical engineering and chemistry where many different products are obtained all of which are produced simultaneously. The study of the reaction rate is called chemical kinetics. The rate of reaction is determined by the rate of change of the concentration of the reactants or products. The rate of reaction is also called the rate of change of the concentration of the reactants or products.

Rate constant. The proportionality constant k in the rate equation. It is a function of temperature and the nature of the reaction. It is proportional to the rate of reaction. The rate of reaction is proportional to the rate of change of the concentration of the reactants or products. The rate of reaction is also called the rate of change of the concentration of the reactants or products.

$$\frac{dA}{dt} = kA \quad (1)$$

where $-dc/dt$ is the rate of decrease in concentration of A with time t . The rate of change will decrease as A is used up and its concentration decreases but the rate will always be proportional to the concentration. Thus if k has a value 1.001 per minute 10^4 of A which is present at any time t will react per minute. Over a long period of time, the concentration will be changing during the time interval and it is necessary to integrate the equation. Thus

$$k = \frac{2.303}{t_2 - t_1} \log \frac{c_A}{c_A} \quad (2)$$

where c_A the concentration at time t_1 and c_A is the concentration at time t_2 . Thus it is possible to determine the rate constant k from the measurements of the concentration of A at two different times. When the rate constant has been evaluated by experimental measurements or by theoretical calculations it is possible to calculate accurately the concentration c_A at any later time when it is known at one time. Frequently the known concentration c_A is taken as the initial concentration starting at zero time.

Order of reaction. The order of reaction depends on the exponent of the concentration which determines the rate of the reaction. Thus in Eq (1) the concentration is first order. In another type of reaction which depends on the collision of two molecules $A + A \rightarrow A_2$ the rate is given by the formula

$$\frac{-dc_A}{dt} = k c_A^2 \quad (3)$$

Such a reaction is called a second-order reaction. If the reaction is $A + B \rightarrow AB$ the rate of the reaction may be given by the relation

$$\frac{-d}{dt} = \frac{-dc_B}{dt} = \frac{dc_{AB}}{dt} = k c_A c_B \quad (4)$$

The reaction rate is first order with respect to A and first order with respect to B but the overall reaction is said to be second order. The reaction order is equal to the sum of the exponents of the concentration of all the reacting material. In first-order reaction k is merely a ratio and is independent of the units of concentration used. In a second-order reaction which depends on the product of the concentrations the constant k include a term for the concentration. Its numerical value depends on the concentration units used such as moles per litre.

When the time interval t is long it is necessary to integrate the formula. The Eq (3) becomes

$$k = \frac{1}{t} \frac{x}{(a-x)} \quad (5)$$

and Eq (4) becomes

$$k = \frac{2.303}{t(a-b)} \log \frac{b(a-x)}{(b-x)} \quad (6)$$

where a is the concentration of A and b is the concentration of B at the start of the reaction when $t = 0$ and x is the change in concentration during time t .

Third order reactions involving three substances A, B and C are known but they are rather rare. The rate of the reaction is proportional to the product of the concentrations of A, B and C.

Zero order reactions given by the formula

$$-\frac{dc_A}{dt} = k \quad (7)$$

are known. In these the rate is independent of the concentration and is constant over a long period of time. Such zero order reactions are found in photochemistry where the intensity of light rather than the concentration is the rate determining factor. They are found also in saturated solution where the concentrations of the reacting materials are kept constant by the solution of more of the solid.

If the order of a reaction is known it is a simple matter to calculate with the formulas just listed the amount of reactant remaining or the amount of product formed at any time. If the order is not known it must be evaluated from experimental data. For example in the rate expression for the reaction $A + B$

$$-\frac{dc_A}{dt} = -\frac{dc_B}{dt} = k c_A^m c_B^n \quad (8)$$

it is necessary to evaluate the exponent m and n . Usually they will not be the whole numbers 1, 2 or 3 but rather numbers such as 1.3 which then do not give first, second or third order reactions. The reaction with fractional exponents involve several reactions which take place simultaneously.

In evaluating the exponent the data may be substituted into formulas to determine if a first, second or third order formula will agree with the experimental data. Also the order may be determined by graphing. The reaction is first order if $\log c_A$ gives a straight line when plotted against time, second order if $1/c$ gives a straight line and third order if $1/c^3$ gives a straight line provided all reactants start with the same concentration. A zero-order reaction gives a horizontal line when concentration is plotted against time. The order of each reactant can be determined also by increasing its concentration and measuring the effect on the reaction rate while the concentration of all other reactants are kept constant or are present in large excess.

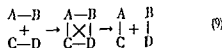
Experimental measurements. Measurements of reaction rate are made by determining the concentrations of reactant or product as a function of time. In a closed system samples can be withdrawn and analyzed immediately (or chilled quickly) so that the concentration does not change after the time of sampling. The analysis may be carried out by chemical means such as titration or by physical measurement of such properties as light absorption, refractive index or volume.

If there is a change in pressure of a gas, electrical conductance, volume of a solution, electrical conductance or other physical property the course of the reaction can be followed in the whole reaction vessel without withdrawing sample. If only one of the reactants or products absorbs light of a given wavelength the changing concentration may be followed by measuring the absorption of light.

In some reactions the rate is determined conveniently by passing the reacting material in a stream through the reaction chamber and determining the concentrations before and after entering the chamber. The time is estimated from the rate of flow and the volume of the chamber.

Activation energy. Energy must be applied to prepare the molecules for reaction. Otherwise the reactions would take place almost instantaneously. In ordinary thermal reactions this extra energy is provided by collisions with molecules that are moving at very high velocities. Energies of about 10-100 kcal/mole are usually required to activate the molecules in reactions which proceed with measurable rates.

The activation process usually involves the weakening or breaking of a chemical bond. Thus in a typical reaction



energy is required to activate the molecules AB and CD and bring them close to each other so that there is a force of attraction exhibited between all the atoms. The activated complex which results may break up in different ways for example into the product AC and BD.

Complex molecule with many atoms may be regarded as composed of many different atoms paired held together either by electrical charge or by electron pair and the energies required to loosen or break the pairs and to move the atoms around varies greatly in different chemical reactions.

If the activation energy is low there are many effective molecular collisions and the reaction is fast. If the activation energy is high only a small fraction of the molecules will be moving fast enough to give sufficient energy on collision to activate the molecule and bring about the reaction. Then the reaction is slow. The distribution of molecular velocities at a given temperature is given by the Maxwell-Boltzmann distribution.

When the temperature rises the average kinetic energy of the molecules increases at a rate proportional to the absolute temperature but the number of molecules with very high velocities increases very rapidly. Accordingly a chemical reaction proceeds very much more rapidly with the temperature rises. It is especially true at moderate temperatures of high energy. The effect is so large that most chemical reactions in the neighborhood of room temperature would still proceed in rates 10-100 times faster at higher temperatures.

the energy required to break the bonds of the two reacting pairs of atoms

In endothermic bond breaking reactions a lower limit can be placed on the heat of activation. It is at least as great as the energy required to break the bond. If the rupture of the bond produces atoms or free radicals which recombine without the requirement of activation energy the activation energy is equal to the energy required to break the bond.

In exothermic reactions there is no relation between the heat evolved and the activation energy. It is thus necessary to rely on experimental data or rough estimates based on molecular structure or on the Eyring or Hirschfelder rules.

Many chemical reaction rates are greatly affected by catalysts and by light and high energy radiation.

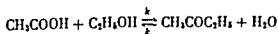
Complex reactions These are chemical reactions in which more than one reaction is going on at the same time. Simple first order reactions in which the rate depends directly on the concentration or second order reactions in which the rate depends on the square of the concentration can be described in simple mathematical terms. However when several reactions occur simultaneously even if they are all first or second order reactions the mathematical description often becomes very complicated. The most common types of complex reactions involve reverse reactions, side reactions and consecutive reactions.

Reverse reactions In this type of reaction products reunite to give the original reactants



All reactions are reversible but usually the reverse reaction is so slight that it can be neglected. Even if the reverse reaction is appreciable it can often be ignored in the early stages of the reaction before a sufficient amount of the products have accumulated.

An example of a reversible reaction is the reaction between acetic acid and ethanol to give ethyl acetate and water



At first the rate of formation of ethyl acetate is given by the expression

$$-\frac{d\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{OH}}{dt} = k_1\text{CH}_3\text{COOH}\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{OH}$$

but in later stages the formula is

$$-\frac{d\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{OH}}{dt} = k_1\text{CH}_3\text{COOH}\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{OH} - k_2\text{CH}_3\text{COC}_2\text{H}_5\text{H}_2\text{O}$$

where k_1 is the forward reaction and k_2 is the reverse reaction. It is possible to express k in terms of k_1 and the equilibrium constant K and to obtain by integration a complete formula for the complex reaction

Side reactions When these occur there are several ways in which the starting materials can react to give different products. All are possible according to thermodynamics and the faster reaction will predominate to give the larger yields of products. In the reaction of A with both B and C



the ratio of AB to AC will depend on the relative rates. The rate expressions are

$$-\frac{dA}{dt} = k_1\text{C}_A\text{C}_B + k_2\text{C}_A\text{C}_C$$

$$\frac{d\text{C}_B}{dt} = k_1\text{C}_A\text{C}_B$$

and

$$\frac{d\text{C}_C}{dt} = k_2\text{C}_A\text{C}_C$$

An example of competing or side reactions is the nitration of chlorobenzene. Three different reactions take place simultaneously to give products in which the NO_2 and Cl groups are adjacent in the benzene ring where they are separated by one carbon atom or where they are separated by two carbon atoms. Most of the materials react to give the third product.

Consecutive reactions In this type of reaction the product of the first reaction reacts to give a second product and this in turn reacts to give a third product



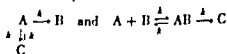
The rate at which B changes is given by the expression

$$\frac{d\text{C}_B}{dt} = k_1\text{C}_A - k_2\text{C}_B$$

where k_1 is the specific reaction rate constant for the decomposition of A and k_2 is the constant for the decomposition of B.

Figure 2 shows a graph in which the quantities A, B and C are each given as a function of time when $k_1 = 0.1$, $k_2 = 0.05$ and 1 mole of A is taken at the beginning of the reaction. The concentration of A decreases rapidly at first and then more slowly but always at a rate proportional to the concentration of A. It approaches zero as the time increases. The concentration of B builds up rapidly at first, goes through a maximum, then decreases and eventually approaches zero. The product C is slow in getting started but after B has accumulated C increases rapidly and finally approaches 1 mole which was the original amount of A. It is clear that the concentration of B is a complicated function of time.

There are many types of still more complex reaction. For example



firms, but usually irregularly banded with red
black and yellow and often suffused with the
duller slate (s. CORAL SNAKE) The milk
ke cream color of the Rocky Mountain
s has a dull green

The name king comes from the habit of
messing about in crows and killing other
mild group of species See SQUAMATA

[JDB]

Kingbird

A Great her Tyrannus of the family
Tyrannidae This family is summer resident
birds of eastern North America it is
also found in Oregon and New Mexico It
is a large above and white below The crown of
adult has a concealed orange patch The tail is
black tipped by a band of white The kingbird



The kingbird Tyrannus l. gith to 91 (F m
E L P l m F l d b k f N t I H s t r y M G w
H l l 1949)

phases of the subspecies which it lives
in the Pacific states and the Atlantic states
usually up to the north and south
of the mountain ranges of the United States
S. FRYE YCHER PASSERIFORMES

[JDB]

Kingfisher

Any of 86 species of the family Alcedinidae The
family is found in the United States, Mexico, and
the West Indies. The kingfisher is a small, sleek
bird with a long, pointed beak. It is usually
found near water, where it catches fish. The
kingfisher is a very fast and agile bird, and
it is also a very good swimmer. It is a very
common bird in many parts of the world, and
it is a very popular bird to keep as a pet.



The kingbird (Tyrannus l. gith to 14) is a
member of the family Tyrannidae. It is a
small, sleek bird with a long, pointed beak. It
is usually found near water, where it catches
fish. The kingbird is a very fast and agile
bird, and it is also a very good swimmer. It
is a very common bird in many parts of the
world, and it is a very popular bird to keep
as a pet.

not to be confused with the kingbird
See CORACIIFORMES

[JDB]

Kinglet

Any one of several species of small songbird of the
family Sylviidae the Old World warblers. Two
species occur in North America. The kinglet is a
small bird, usually found in the mountains of the
North.



The kinglet (Turdus l. gith to 43) is a
member of the family Turdidae. It is a
small, sleek bird with a long, pointed beak. It
is usually found near water, where it catches
fish. The kinglet is a very fast and agile
bird, and it is also a very good swimmer. It
is a very common bird in many parts of the
world, and it is a very popular bird to keep
as a pet.

Am. kinglet (Turdus l. gith to 43) is a
member of the family Turdidae. It is a
small, sleek bird with a long, pointed beak. It
is usually found near water, where it catches
fish. The kinglet is a very fast and agile
bird, and it is also a very good swimmer. It
is a very common bird in many parts of the
world, and it is a very popular bird to keep
as a pet.

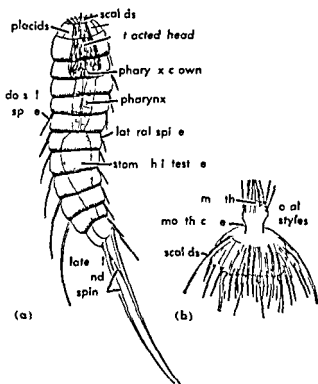
[JDB]

Kinorhyncha

A class of the phylum Achelminthes consisting of superficially segmented microscopic marine animals lacking external ciliation. All members of the class are benthonic, so called because they generally dwell on mud bottoms in shallow water in the littoral zone.

Three suborders are generally recognized: Cyclorhagae, Conchiorhagae, and Homalorhagae.

The body is completely enclosed in a transparent cuticle secreted by an underlying epidermis. As is the case among the Nematoda, the cuticle is periodically molted during growth. Three major regions of the body are recognizable: head, neck, and a jointed trunk. The apparent segments of the body are termed zonites; the head and neck each consist of one zonite. Except for one genus in which the trunk has 12 zonites, the usual number is 11.



Echinodrella sp. (a) cyclorhagae (b) conchiorhagae (c) homalorhagae. (After L. H. Hyman, The Invertebrates of 3 McGraw-Hill, 1951)

The head is completely retractile. When protruded it bears 5-7 circles of spines called scolids.

The neck is covered by a varying number of large plates called placids. Only among the Cyclorhagae does the placid cover the end of the body when the head is withdrawn. Among the Conchiorhagae the closing apparatus consists of a pair of lateral plates on the third zonite while in the Homalorhagae it consists of a single dorsal plate and three ventral plates on the third zonite.

A pair of ventral alae (lateral tubes) occurs on either the third or fourth zonite. Each of these tubes usually bears a pair of

terminal zonites may bear in addition a pair of large movable lateral pincers.

The musculature is segmentally arranged. There are two pairs of longitudinal muscle bands, a dorsal lateral and a ventrolateral. Anteriorly these form the retractors of the head. Protraction of the head is accomplished by contraction of the ring muscles of the first two zonites and the paired dorsoventral muscle bands in the trunk zonites.

Locomotion is accomplished in the following manner: the head is protruded and the surface gripped by the alae. The trunk is then advanced by contraction of the longitudinal muscles and the head is retracted. Repetition of this sequence results in creeping locomotion.

The nervous system consists of a brain which encircles the anterior end of the pharynx, a ventral ganglionated cord, and in addition ganglion cells in each zonite are located in the lateral and dorsal epidermal chords.

The mouth is terminally located on the mouth cone which encloses a short buccal cavity. Posterior to the buccal cavity is a muscular pharynx. The pharynx is similar to that of the Nematoda and Gastrotricha but differs in being lined by a syncytial epithelium. The pharynx is followed by a short slender esophagus whose epithelial lining is continuous with that of the pharynx. The stomach intestine is a straight simple tube covered externally by a loose network of muscle fibers. The short endgut is separated from the stomach intestine by a pincher. A second more posterior sphincter is also present. The anus is terminal.

The fluid-filled body cavity between the digestive tract and the epidermis is unlined and is presumably a pseudocoel or false coelom.

A single pair of protonephridial excretory organs is present in the tenth zonite. The flame bulbs are multinucleate and generally each contain a single long flagellum. Among the Homalorhagae a second short flagellum is present. The protonephridial canal which leads to nephridiopores on the eleventh zonite contains living flagella. The pores consist of sieve plates.

The Kinorhyncha are dioecious. In each sex there is one pair of gonads. The genital pores are located on the thirteenth zonite. The ovary contains both ova and nutritive cells. A short oviduct extends from the posterior end of each ovary to the genital pore. The male genital pore is armed with two or three penial picules which may serve as a copulatory apparatus.

The early embryology of the Kinorhyncha is unknown. In the Cyclorhagae the egg hatches into a minute larva which lacks external evidence of zonites, head, placid, pharynx, or anus. The larva passes through several successive stages separated by molts during which the number of zonites increases and a full morphological stage is attained. Among the Homalorhagae the first larva has 6-7 zonites and is in general a more advanced larva than that of the Cyclorhagae. The development of the Conchiorhagae is unknown. See A. HELMINTHES.

Kirchhoff's laws of electric circuits

Fundamental structural laws dealing with the relation of currents at junction and the voltages around a loop these laws are commonly used in the analysis and solution of a network. They may be used directly to solve circuit problems, and they form the basis for network theorems used with more complex networks. Many years of experience have produced the science of electronics.

In the solution of circuit problems it is necessary to identify the specific physical principles involved in the problem and on the basis of them to write quantitative expressions relating the knowns to the unknowns. Physically the analysis of networks is based on Ohm's law governing the branch equations, Kirchhoff's voltage law governing the loop voltage equations, and Kirchhoff's current law giving the nodal current equations. Mathematically a network may be solved when it is possible to set up a number of independent equations equal to the number of unknowns. See CIRCUIT ELECTRIC NETWORK THEORY ELECTRICAL.

When writing the independent equations a current directions and voltage polarities may be chosen arbitrarily. If the equations are written with due regard for these arbitrary choices the algebraic signs of current and voltage will take care of themselves.

Kirchhoff's voltage law One way of stating Kirchhoff's voltage law: At each instant of time the algebraic sum of the voltages is equal to the algebraic sum of the electromotive forces both being taken in the same direction round the closed loop.

The ppl at of ths l w may be ll trated
th th c ut Fig 1 Fr t, t s d able to
on d the gnificance of a ltrge r i e d
lag d p l t n to the urr nt ar w The
(k g defin t n s s) ll tated by Fig 1

Fig. 1. The dependence of the rate of the reaction on the concentration of the reactants. The rate of the reaction was measured by the method of the initial rates. The rate of the reaction was measured by the method of the initial rates. The rate of the reaction was measured by the method of the initial rates.

lag d op: e c u t e d f g : g f m
3 to 4 n t h d e c t n f t h r r n t a r r w t h e
p o l n t y f m p l u t m i n : T h u s e = R i s a
l a g d p f m 3 to 4

The ppl at o f Kirchh ff's Itage l w g es
the loop Itage equ t n

$$E_{\infty} + R = R_1 + R_2$$

In th n tw rk i f f g 2 the ltag ur sha e
the m i qu ncy The pos s fo the
b h curr t i f and l e cho e rb a
ly a e th loop rr ts l nd l The ltag e
equ two a f loop l d 2 c b wr tte g
n ta t e b ch urr ts st t n l op
curr nt ph sor b h c rr t ph loop
pts

The loop is obtained by applying a half flip tag to the left edge of the loop.

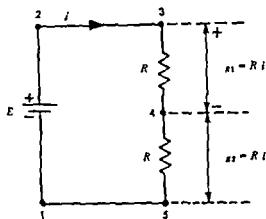


Fig 1

Using instantaneous branch currents

$$e_1 = R_1 i_R + L \frac{di_R}{dt}$$

$$e_1 = \frac{1}{L} \int i_C dt + L \frac{di_L}{dt}$$

Use instantaneous loop current

$$e_1 = R_{L1} + L \frac{d(i_1 + i_2)}{dt}$$

$$i = \frac{1}{C} \int i_2 dt + L \frac{d(i_2 + i_1)}{dt}$$

Using phasor branch currents

$$E_1 = RI_R + j\omega LI_L$$

$$E = -j \frac{1}{\omega C} I_C + j \omega L I_L$$

Use graph & loop currents

$$E_2 = RI_1 + j\omega L(I_1 + I_2)$$

$$E_2 = -j \frac{1}{\omega C} I_1 + j\omega L(I_2 + I_1)$$

Kirchhoff's current law Kirchhoff's current law
m, b expre s d as follows At any gi en t nt
the sum f th n t a t n e o s alues of all th cu
rents fl w ng toward a po nt equal t the s m of
th nst nt a eous value f ll the curre ts fl w ng
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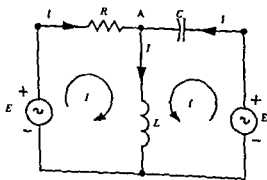


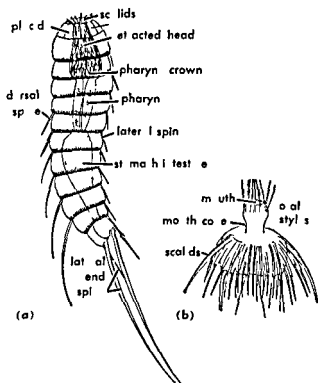
Fig 2

Kinorhyncha

A class of the phylum Achelminthes consisting of superficially segmented microscopic marine animals lacking external ciliation. All members of the class are benthonic, so called because they generally dwell on mud bottoms in shallow water in the littoral zone.

Three suborders are generally recognized: Cyclorhagae, Conchorhagae, and Homalorhagae.

The body is completely enclosed in a transparent cuticle secreted by an underlying epidermis. As is the case among the Nematoda, the cuticle is periodically molted during growth. Three major regions of the body are recognizable: head, neck, and a jointed trunk. The apparent segments of the body are termed zonites; the head and neck each consist of one zonite. Except for one genus in which the trunk has 12 zonites, the usual number is 11.



Echinodrella sp., a cyclorhagous kinorhynch. (a) Side view. (b) Head. (After L. H. Hyman, *The Invertebrates*, J. M. Graw-Hill, 1951)

The head is completely retractile. When protruded it bears 5-7 circles of spines called calids.

The neck is covered by a varying number of large plates called placids. Only among the Cyclorhagae do the placids close over the end of the body when the head is withdrawn. Among the Conchorhagae, the closing apparatus consists of a pair of lateral plates on the third zonite, while in the Homalorhagae it consists of a single dorsal plate and three ventral plates on the third zonite.

A pair of ventral adhesive tubes occurs on either the third or fourth zonite. Each of the remaining trunk zonites usually bears a pair of lateral spines and a single dorsal spine. The

terminal zonite may bear in addition a pair of large movable lateral spines.

The musculature is segmentally arranged. There are two pairs of longitudinal muscle bands: a dorsolateral and a ventrolateral. Anteriorly these form the retractors of the head. Protrusion of the head is accomplished by contraction of the ring muscles of the first two zonites and the paired dorsoventral muscle bands in the trunk zonites.

Locomotion is accomplished in the following manner: the head is protruded and the surface gripped by the scalds. The trunk is then advanced by contraction of the longitudinal muscles and the head is retracted. Repetition of this sequence results in creeping locomotion.

The nervous system consists of a brain which encircles the anterior end of the pharynx, a ventral ganglionated cord, and in addition ganglion cells in each zonite are located in the lateral and dorsal epidermal chords.

The mouth is terminally located on the mouth cone which encloses a short buccal cavity. Posterior to the buccal cavity is a muscular pharynx. The pharynx is similar to that of the Nematoda and Gastrotricha but differs in being lined by a syncytial epithelium. The pharynx is followed by a short slender esophagus whose epithelial lining is continuous with that of the pharynx. The stomach intestine is a straight simple tube covered externally by a loose network of muscle fibers. The short endgut is separated from the stomach intestine by a sphincter. A second more posterior sphincter is also present. The anus is terminal.

The fluid-filled body cavity between the digestive tract and the epidermis is unlined and is presumably a pseudocoel or false coelom.

A single pair of protonephridial excretory organs is present in the tenth zonite. The flame bulbs are multinucleate and generally each contains a single long flagellum. Among the Homalorhagae, a second short flagellum is present. The protonephridial canals, which lead to nephridiopores on the eleventh zonite, contain driving flagella. The pores consist of sieve plates.

The Kinorhyncha are dioecious. In each sex there is one pair of gonads. The genital pores are located on the thirteenth zonite. The ovary contains both ova and nutritive cells. A short oviduct extends from the posterior end of each ovary to the genital pore. The male genital pore is armed with two or three penial spicules which may serve as a copulatory apparatus.

The early embryology of the Kinorhyncha is unknown. In the Cyclorhagae, the eggs hatch into a minute larva which lacks external evidence of zonite, head, placid, pharynx, or anus. This larva passes through several successive stages, separated by molts, during which the number of zonites increases and an adult morphology is attained. Among the Homalorhagae, the first larva has 6-7 zonites and is, in general, a more advanced larva than that of the Cyclorhagae. The development of the Conchorhagae is unknown. See CEFIMINTHS [MS]

Kirchhoff's laws of electric circuits

For many natural laws dealing with the relationship between a junction and the voltages around a loop these laws are commonly used in the analysis and solution of network problems. They may be used directly to solve circuit problems and they form the basis for network theorems used with more complex networks. Many years of experience have produced the effectiveness of these laws.

In the solution of circuit problems it is necessary to identify the specific physical principles involved in the problem and on the basis of them to write equations expressing the relations among the knowns. Physically the analysis of networks based on Ohm's law giving the branch equations, Kirchhoff's voltage law giving the loop voltage equations and Kirchhoff's current law giving the nodal equations. Mathematically a network may be solved when it is possible to set up a number of independent equations equal to the number of unknowns. See CIRCUIT ELECTRIC NETWORK THEORY ELECTRICAL.

When writing the independent equations current direction and sign polarity may be chosen arbitrarily. If the equations are written with due regard to these arbitrary choices the algebraic sign of current and voltage will take care of them.

Kirchhoff's voltage law O wav of tating
Kirchhoff' oltag law; Ate h n tant fime
sh lg b m of the oltag ie is qu l to
th lgebrai s m f the lttag d op both b ng
taken in the same di ton a ud the cl sed
loop

The applicability of this law may be illustrated with the facts in Fg 1. First, it is desirable to determine the significance of a violation and the degree of punishment that the present row. The following definition is illustrated by Fg 1.

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the ppl at n f K1 hh ff's ltage law g s
the loop olt g q t n

$$E = \quad + r = R + R$$

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equ t f lo ps l d 2 n be wrtte u g
c rnta eq b h e t st ta e sloo
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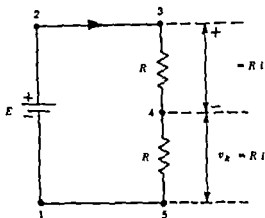


Fig. 1

Use instantaneous branch currents

$$e_1 = R_R + L \frac{di_L}{dt}$$

$$e_1 = \frac{1}{C} \int i_C dt + L \frac{di_L}{dt}$$

Using instantaneous loop current

$$e_1 = Ri_1 + L \frac{d(i_1 + i_2)}{dt}$$

$$e_1 = \frac{1}{C} \int i_1 dt + L \frac{d(i_1 + i_2)}{dt}$$

Using phasor branch currents

$$E_s = RI_R + j\omega LI_L$$

$$E_2 = -j \frac{1}{\omega C} I_C + j\omega L I_L$$

U g ph sor loop currents

$$E = RI_1 + j\omega L(I_1 + I_2)$$

$$E_2 = -j \frac{1}{\omega C} I + j\omega L(I_2 + I_1)$$

Kirchhoff's current law K r h h f's current law
may be pres ed s f l l w At ny g en insta t
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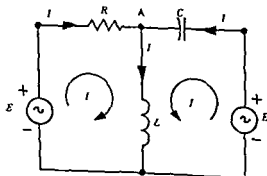


Fig 2

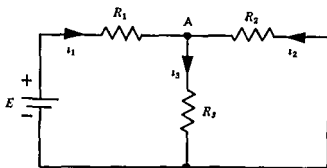


Fig 3

The application of this law may be illustrated with the circuit in Fig 3 At node A

$$i_1 = i_2 + i_3$$

The current equations at node A in Fig 2 can be written using instantaneous branch currents or phasor branch currents

Using instantaneous branch currents

$$i_R + i_C = i_L$$

Using phasor branch currents

$$I_R + I_C = I_L$$

[K Y T]

Kissing bug

A name sometimes limited to a single species *Reduttus personatus* but usually applied to any of several members of the family Reduviidae order Hemiptera. They are also called assassin bugs, cone nose bugs, or big bedbugs. Several of the species may be found at times in houses and may inflict very painful bites. They eat other insects. Several species are known to be vectors for the trypanosome parasite that causes Chagas disease in South America and others are suspected as vectors for kala azar in India. See CHAGAS DISEASE, HEMIPTERA, LEISHMANIASIS [J D B]

Kite

A tethered flying device that supports itself and the cable that connects it to the ground by means of the aerodynamic forces created by the relative motion of the wind. This relative wind may arise merely from the natural motions of the air or may be caused by towing the kite through the agency of its connecting cable.

Kites take many forms; the bow and box kites shown in the drawing are common in the United States. In many countries, particularly in Asia, kites are frequently used in rituals and festivals; their bizarre forms and shapes are traditional, some having been developed centuries ago.

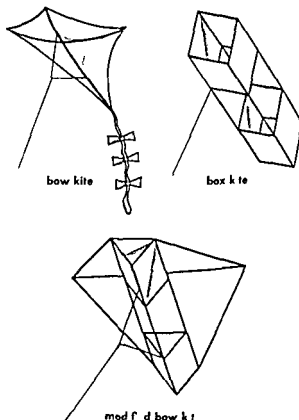
The lifting force of all kites is produced by deflecting the air downward; the resulting change in momentum producing an upward force. To be successful a kite must have an extremely low wing loading (weight/area) so that it may fly even on days when the wind velocity is not high. It must be

completely stable since the only control available to the operator are the length of cable and the rate at which it is taken in or let out. Efficient design requires that its lift-to-drag ratio be as high as possible.

Experiments on the possible application of efficient aircraft-type lifting surfaces in which most of the lift arises from the low pressures created by the air flowing over the upper surface have shown them to be too sensitive to changes in wind force and direction. Under normal atmospheric conditions the use of this type of lifting surface results in a kite that behaves in a violent and unpredictable manner. For this reason the higher drag associated with a surface from which the flow has separated is tolerated, and the majority of the lifting force is obtained from pressure on the lower surface because stalled surfaces are much less sensitive to wind changes.

Both the lift-to-drag ratio and the stability of the kite are functions of the length of cable. The more cable released, the more drag created. This combined with the increase in weight being supported causes the kite to sag off downwind, reducing the flight angle, which is the angle formed between the horizontal and a line passing through the kite and the operator.

Most kites with a properly located cable pivot point generally slightly ahead of the center of gravity demonstrate longitudinal stability. Lateral and directional instabilities generally couple to produce violent motions. The longer the cable, the more the motions are damped. Lateral and direc-



Common forms of kite

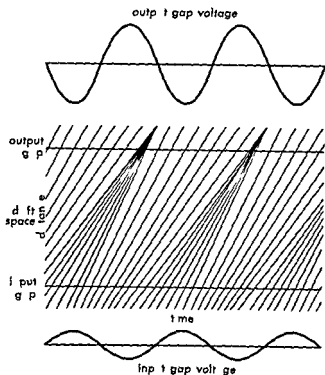


Fig 2 Distance-time (Applegate) diagram for a klystron illustrating the bunching action in a drift space

the drift tube and the abscissa being proportional to time. The curve for a given electron is a straight line in the field-free drift space, the slope of the line being proportional to the velocity at entrance. Figure 2 shows a number of such lines, each for a different electron entering at a different time and so with a different velocity depending upon the phase of the rf wave across the input gap at the time that electron passed through. The diagram demonstrates how the faster electrons (greater slopes) catch up with the slower ones (smaller slopes). At some distance such as A marked by the dotted line, definite bunches are formed so that an output circuit might be placed for induction of the

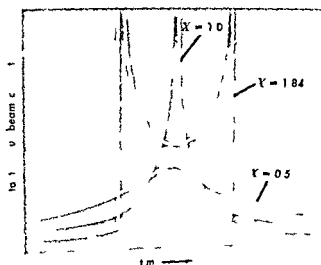


Fig 3 Wave shapes of current versus time for a deamed klystron neglecting space charge. X denotes the degree of bunching parameter and indicates the degree of bunching

desired output. Figure 3 shows pictures of the wave shape of current at various positions in the drift space for an idealized model as above. It is to be noted that the current wave shape is rich in harmonics.

The transfer admittance (analogous to the transconductance of a triode) of the idealized two-gap klystron is given by

$$y_m = \frac{j\theta I_0}{2V_0} e^{-j\theta} \left[\frac{J_1 \left(\frac{\theta V_1}{2V_0} \right)}{\left(\frac{\theta V_1}{4V_0} \right)} \right] \quad (1)$$

where V_1 is the effective ac gap voltage, J_1 a Bessel function of order one, θ is the transit angle in drift space in radians, I_0 is the dc beam current and V_0 is the dc beam voltage. This transadmittance is ordinarily low compared with the transconductance of triodes and tetrodes, so a high impedance is required in the output circuit. Usually a cavity type circuit. As input gap loading is small, the input circuit is usually a similar high impedance cavity circuit. Both of these usually have a high quality factor Q which represents the ratio of energy stored to that dissipated per cycle, leading to a relatively narrow bandwidth. The value of transadmittance given by Eq. (1) may be decreased by space charge effects in high density electron beams. The effects cause both a longitudinal and transverse debunching of electrons. Finite transit time across input and output gaps or the use of gridless gaps further decreases the transadmittance by the introduction of gap factors less than unity in the equation. These latter effects also decrease the value of gap impedance so that smaller power gains are obtained.

Circuit. The resonant circuit used in both the input and output gaps is normally of the resonant cavity type (see CAVITY RESONATOR). Because of the desirability of keeping gap transit time to a low value, the cavities are normally axially symmetric with a small gap in the vicinity of the axis where the beam passes. Coupling from the cavity may be by loops, probes, or tubes with the first of these most common.

A given resonant mode of the cavity resonator may be represented by three parameters:

f = resonant frequency

Q = quality factor = $2\pi f \times \frac{\text{energy stored}}{\text{average power loss}}$

R_A = maximum shunt resistance across gap at resonance

For the output cavity which is coupled to a useful load, the loaded Q_L becomes an important fourth parameter. The Q is also related to the bandwidth of the circuit Δf between half power point

$$Q = \frac{f_0}{\Delta f} \quad (2)$$

gap. The bunching action in this case takes place not in a field free drift region but in the retarding field region between the cavity and the repeller, the latter being at a negative dc potential. In this retarding region the fast electrons penetrate farther than the slow ones so that there may be bunching when electrons are returned to the cavity as shown by the Applegate diagram or distance time plot in Fig. 7. If the phase of the returned bunches is correct the current induced in the cavity reinforces the original voltage building up an oscillation until nonlinear effects produce a limiting action.

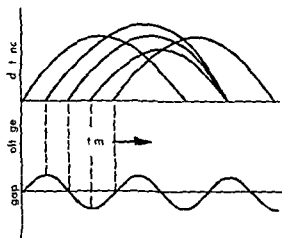


Fig. 7 Distance time (Applegate) diagram for a reflex klystron demonstrating the condition for oscillation.

The correct phase for oscillation is found to result when the time of transit θ (out and back) of the average velocity electron represents an integral number of cycles N plus one fourth.

$$\theta = (N + \frac{1}{4})2\pi \quad (6)$$

There are different electronic modes corresponding to the number of the integer N . About each value of N oscillation will continue for a small region with variation of transit angle. A typical result of varying repeller voltage is shown in Fig. 8. The

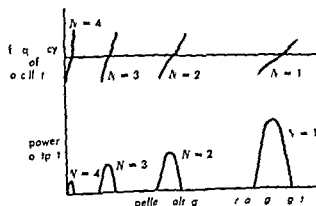


Fig. 8 Frequency and power output versus repeller voltage for a typical reflex klystron demonstrating various electronic modes of oscillation.

mode with lowest N is at the highest value of (negative) repeller voltage and is the broadest mode. It may or may not be the strongest mode depending upon the strength of coupling to the load but if not the adjacent one will be the strongest and higher order modes (lower values of repeller voltage) will decrease in strength. The total tuning range is nearly the same in all modes so the tuning rate in megacycles per volt is greater in the higher order narrower modes.

If electrons are allowed to make more than one transit a hysteresis effect may be observed in that different tuning curves are obtained for increasing or decreasing repeller voltage in a given mode. The careful design can eliminate this possibility in tubes for which it would be undesirable. The sketch of Fig. 6 indicates the design for collection of electrons after one transit.

Reflex klystrons following these basic principles have been built for frequencies from 500 to 45,000 Mc. [J. R. W.]

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Knudsen number

In fluid mechanics the ratio l/L of the mean free path length l of the molecules of the fluid to a characteristic length L of the structure in the fluid stream. When the mean free path of the fluid particles is short relative to the size of the object being considered the fluid can be treated as a continuum (see FIELD THEORY, CLASSICAL GAS DYNAMICS). If the path length between molecular encounters is comparable to or larger than a significant dimension of the flow region the gas must be treated as consisting of discrete particles (see STATISTICAL MECHANICS, SUPERFLUID DYNAMICS). The usual classifications of flow according to Knudsen number are as follows: for $l/L \leq 0.01$ the flow can be dealt with by the method of gas dynamics; for $l/L \approx 1$ the behavior is termed slip flow; for $l/L \geq 10$ the behavior is termed free molecular flow or rarefied gas dynamics. [F. H. R.]

Koala

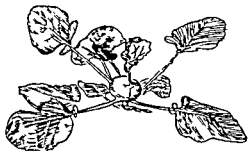
An arboreal marsupial *Phascolarctos cinereus* found in the eucalyptus forests of Australia. It is sometimes called the native bear or koala bear or teddy bear and along with the kangaroo has become a symbol of Australia. It is gray above and white below. The adult is about 3 ft long. It feeds only every other year and the single offspring rides on its mother's back until it is about a year old. In other marsupials the young are born after a short gestation period and are quite



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U A [J D B]

Kohlrabi
A cool e o b e n i l c u i f r (B a u l
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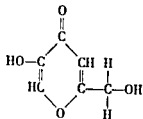
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[H J C.]

Kojic acid

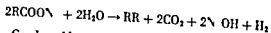
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t h e f l l o w g t c t a l f m u l a



Sever l s p e s e s o f f i l m e t o f n g i o f t h e g e n u
A s p g i l l u s c n p r o d u c e t h n n e a r b x y l i r i g
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50-65% o f g l c e t i l e d A m e d i u m c n t n n g
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g t a t e d n d u b m e g e d n d i t f o r 5 d a y s
T h g i m l p r d e s g o o d y i e l d n t h e
s l w e r u f a e t a p p o c e s P r o d c t o n f k o j i
c d f i l l w e d q a t t t l y b y t h e r e d c l r i t
g i s w i t h f r c h l r d e S e I N D U S T R I A L M I C R O -
B I O L O G Y [J W F]

Kolbe hydrocarbon synthesis

T h e p r d t i n f n a l k a n b y t h e l c t r l y s o f
a w a t l b l e a l t f a r b o x y l i c d T h e c r
b y l t i s r d h g e d a t t h n o d e y e l d g
a b o d d e n d l k y l a d c a l w h c h c u p l e t
f r m t h e t u a t e d h y d c r b o H y d r g e n i l i b
t d t t h e t h d



G o o d y l d f l k e s r o b t a n e d w i t h t
t a i g h t c h a d n t n n g 5-18 c r b o n t m s.
A l k e r t h e t h a n l k n e s a f r m e d f t h e a c d
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f t h a d S A L K A N E [L S]

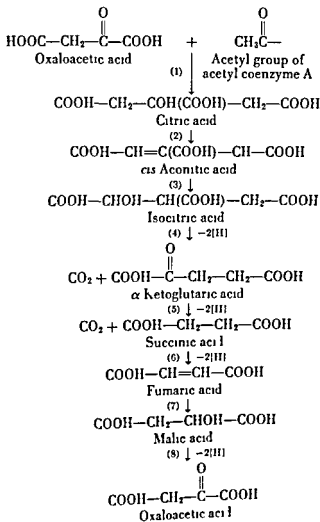
Krebs cycle

A e q n o f n z y m a t i c t i o t h t n l e d
n t h o d t m t b o l m f m n y r g a n m
e p l l y t h t c a r r y t r p a t o n T h
y l i a l k w n t h t d c y l e d t h e
t c b x y l d y l e T h r g h t s q u e o
p t h w a y t h t w o - c b o e t y l t



an important metabolic intermediate derived from a variety of substrates can be oxidized to two molecules of CO_2 . In aerobic metabolism two molecules of oxygen are used for this oxidation. Organic acids containing four, five and six carbons are formed in the course of the oxidation. These are consumed and regenerated continually through the operation of the entire sequence. Hence this oxidative pathway is a catalytic mechanism which operates in a cyclic manner and is known as the citric acid cycle because this tricarboxylic acid is one of the metabolic intermediates. The cycle is also named after H. A. Krebs who recognized its functional role. See METABOLISM.

There are four oxidative steps in the cycle. In each of the first two atoms of hydrogen or two protons and two electrons are removed from the substrate. In aerobic respiration the electrons are transferred to molecular oxygen through the cytochrome system of iron porphyrin enzymes. Energy rich phosphate bonds in the form of adenosinetriphosphate (ATP) are generated in the course of electron transport which therefore serves as the major source of energy for cellular metabolism. Beside serving as a means for the complete or terminal oxidation of organic substrates which can be converted to acetyl fragments the reactions of the



Krebs cycle are used by the organism for the biosynthesis of important cell constituents which can be derived from the metabolic intermediates participating in the cycle. The principal reactions of the Krebs cycle which will be discussed below are outlined in the following diagram in which the oxidative steps (dehydrogenations) are indicated by the symbol $-2[\text{H}]$.

(1) The acetyl group which may be derived from pyruvic acid or from other metabolic intermediates or substrates enters into the cycle as acetyl coenzyme A (acetyl CoA). The so-called condensing enzyme catalyzes the transfer of the acetyl group to the four carbon compound oxaloacetic acid with the formation of the five carbon tricarboxylic acid citric acid and the liberation of CoA.

(2) and (3) Citric acid is dehydrated to cis aconitic acid which is then rehydrated to isocitric acid. Both the first and second reactions are catalyzed by the enzyme aconitase.

(4) Isocitric acid is next oxidatively decarboxylated to yield CO_2 and the five carbon compound α ketoglutaric acid by enzyme systems known as isocitric dehydrogenases. Depending on the biological source of the enzyme either diphosphopyridine nucleotide (DPN) or triphosphopyridine nucleotide (TPN) may act as the coenzyme and immediate hydrogen acceptor for this reaction. There is evidence that an unstable intermediate oxalosuccinic acid is formed in the course of the reaction.

(5) α Ketoglutaric acid is then oxidized and decarboxylated to yield the four carbon compound succinic acid. This involves a sequence of reactions in which DPN serves as the hydrogen acceptor and inorganic phosphate is taken up with the formation of ATP from adenosinediphosphate (ADP). The first step catalyzed by the α ketoglutaric dehydrogenase system requires DPN and CoA. The products are CO_2 , reduced DPN (DPNH) and succinyl CoA. In the next step the reduced DPN component of the succinyl CoA with the simultaneous formation of ATP from inorganic phosphate and ADP. Succinic acid is produced and CoA is regenerated.

(6) and (7) Succinic acid is next oxidized to fumaric acid by the enzyme succinic dehydrogenase and fumaric acid is hydrated to malic acid by fumarase.

(8) Malic acid is oxidized to oxaloacetic acid by the enzyme malic dehydrogenase with the concomitant reduction of DPN. The oxaloacetic acid is regenerated through the entire sequence of reactions of the cycle and becomes available for reacting with acetyl CoA.

The enzymatic reactions of the Krebs cycle are important not only as a source of energy for the cell but also as a source of essential metabolic intermediates which enter as starting material for biosynthetic processes. Thus α ketoglutaric acid is decarboxylated to yield the amino acid glutamic

and This compound in turn takes part in the synthesis of other amino acids. Oxalacetic acid is converted to a part which is also a precursor for a number of amino acids as well as of purines. Some of the intermediates of the Krebs cycle are excreted by the cell. Citric acid is a component of the body fluid of animals and, under certain conditions, is a major product of the metabolism of molds. Similarly α -ketoglutaric acid and succinic acid are excreted by some microorganisms.

Because the role of the intermediate in the Krebs cycle through biosynthesis of excretion determines the integrity of the cycle as a catalytic mechanism for the oxidation of acetyl units, having a very important auxiliary mechanism for producing the supply of such intermediates so that oxalacetic acid can be catalytically available there. One such mechanism is the addition of carbon dioxide to pyruvic acid with the oxidation of reduced triphosphopyridine nucleotide (TPNH). The reaction which yields malic acid is catalyzed by the enzyme malic dehydrogenase. Oxaloacetic acid is derived from phosphoenolpyruvic acid and CO₂ in the presence of isoenzymes that by a different enzyme. Another important mechanism of the organic carbon dioxide carboxylic acid is a sequence of reactions in which isocitric acid is split into succinic acid and glyoxylate and then the compound reacts with acetyl CoA to yield malic acid. The sequence of the reaction in two molecules of isocitric acid can be produced with the consumption of a molecule of xanthine and a molecule of acetyl CoA. See ADENOSINE PHOSPHATE (ADP) ADENOSINE TRIPHOSPHATE (ATP) CELL (BIOLOGICAL) COLENE CYTOCHROME C DIPHENOLPYRIDINE NUCLEOTIDE (DPN) ENZYME PORPHYRIN TRIPHOSPHOPYRIMIDINE NUCLEOTIDE (TPN) [M.D.]

Krong Penney model

As developed in the model of crystal lattice exhibited by the band structure of the electronic states of the crystal. Consider the potential energy $V(x)$ of an electron in the crystal lattice with a constant equilibrium potential well. The potential well is arranged with periodicity. The Schrödinger equation can be readily solved for such an arrangement of electrons. The energy bands are determined with a certain number of states. Figure 2. The Krong Penney model has been extended to the

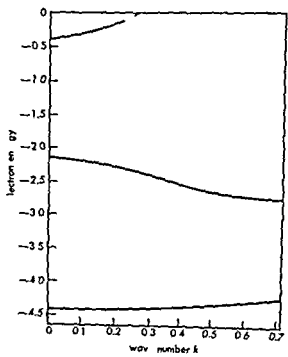


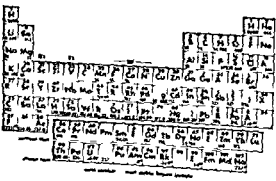
Fig. 2. Energy of electron in the Krong Penney model.

for the impurity atom. A solution of the band theory of solid quantum theory nonrelativistic.

Bibliography: R. D. L. Krong Penney and W. G. P. N. Quantum mechanics of electrons in crystal lattices. P. Roy Soc. (London) A 130 499-513 1931. R. D. Wood and J. Callaway. Relativistic Krong Penney Model. ONP Tech Rept 5 19.

Krypton

Chemical element number 36. Krypton (Kr) is a noble gas. It is a colorless, odorless, and tasteless gas. It is used in various applications, including as a filling gas for incandescent lamps and as a component of various types of electronic devices.



Uses: The principal use of krypton is in filling incandescent lamps and electronic devices of various types. Krypton gas is also used in various types of electronic devices. The high thermal conductivity of krypton is used to fill the filament of incandescent lamps. The low thermal conductivity of krypton is used in various types of electronic devices.

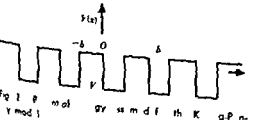


Fig. 1. Potential energy of the Krong Penney model.

heated thus krypton is a better filling gas although more expensive than argon. Two different uses are made of this advantage: krypton-filled lamps can be operated either at the same brightness as those filled with argon in which case the life of the lamp is a good deal longer, or at higher filament temperatures to give a brighter light at greater efficiency (more lumens per watt) but this reduces the life of the lamp somewhat. An example of a use for the brighter lamp is in slide projectors and projectors for home movies.

Krypton is also used to fill electric arc lamps. An example is a new lamp the light from which will pierce fog for 1000 ft or more. Lamps of this type are arranged in rows to mark airplane runways at night. The lamps flash 40 times per minute each flash lasting only 17 μ sec in order not to blind the pilots.

Radioactive krypton 85 is relatively inexpensive and is finding a number of uses. One is in leak testing of sealed containers. Another is in the continuous measurements of the thicknesses of material such as sheets of metal and plastics. Another use is in lamp which give off light for several years with no source of energy other than the radioactivity of the krypton. In the case of the invisible radiation from the krypton activates a phosphor coated on the inner glass walls of the lamp and the phosphor gives off light continuously until the krypton has decayed to a low level of radioactivity. Krypton 85 can be used to detect abnormal heart openings, the introduction of this gas into the human body is practical because the krypton remains in the body for only a short time, working its way out via the blood stream and lung and is not fixed in the body.

Occurrence. The only commercial source of stable krypton is the air, although trace of krypton are found in minerals and meteorites. Krypton constitutes 1.14 parts per million (ppm) by volume of the earth's atmosphere and this krypton is almost entirely a mixture of the following isotopes, none of which is radioactive: 78 (0.35%), 80 (2.27%), 82 (11.56%), 83 (11.55%), 84 (56.90%), 86 (17.37%). The relative abundances of the isotopes is given in parentheses after the mass number. Since some radioactive krypton 85 is formed when atomic bombs are exploded the air now contains this isotope and krypton recently separated from air is very slightly radioactive.

A mixture of stable and radioactive isotopes of krypton is produced in nuclear reactors by the fission of uranium.

It is estimated that about 2×10^6 of the weight of the earth is krypton. Krypton also occurs outside the earth. The estimate is that there are about 51 atoms of krypton for each 1000 atoms of the neon in the atmosphere.

Discovery. Krypton was discovered in England in 1898 by Sir William Ramsay and M. W. Traub. They found it in the less volatile part of the inert gas mixture left after the oxygen and nitrogen had been removed chemically from a sample of air. It

Table 1 Physical properties of krypton

| | |
|--|-------|
| At. m. n. mbe. | 36 |
| Atom. w. g/l. (atmo. p.) | 83.80 |
| Melt. g. p. o. t. C. | 1 |
| Boil. g. p. o. t. at 1 atm. pres. | C |
| G. s. l. e. s. t. y. t. o. C. i. l. t. m. p. e. s. c. g. l. t. r. | 1.34 |
| Liq. d. l. t. y. t. u. s. b. o. i. l. i. n. g. p. o. t. g. / m. l. | 4 |
| Sol. l. i. t. y. w. t. m. l. g. p. 1000 g. w. l. e. r. at | |
| 25 C. 1 l. t. m. p. u. | 85 |

fact that a new element was present was confirmed by the discovery of new lines in the emission spectrum of the residual gas.

Properties. Krypton is a colorless, odorless, and tasteless gas. Table 1 gives some physical properties of krypton.

Krypton does not form chemical compounds in the ordinary sense of the word, although it forms some weakly bonded clathrate, for example with water, hydroquinone, or phenol (see CLATHRATE COMPOUNDS). There is only one atom in each molecule of krypton.

Production. Stable krypton is produced in air separation plant. Air is liquefied and distilled. Krypton and xenon remain with the oxygen. The liquid oxygen is redistilled to concentrate the krypton and xenon from a few parts per million to a few per cent. The rare gases are then adsorbed from the liquid oxygen onto silica gel, desorbed, separated, and purified. Final purification is carried out by passing the krypton over hot titanium metal on which all except inert gas impurities are removed.

A mixture of stable and radioactive krypton isotopes is produced in nuclear reactors. The only radioactive isotope in the mixture which has a half-life of over about 3 hours is krypton 85. This isotope has a half-life of about 10 years. This krypton from a nuclear reactor has been used for several days; the only radioactive isotope left is krypton 85. Table 2 gives the approximate isotopic composition of the krypton thus produced. The composition of the krypton mixture varies somewhat with conditions in the reactor. A nuclear reactor can be used for power production, a large amount of radioactive krypton will come available. Since no cheap method of separating the radioactive from the stable isotope of krypton is known, the nuclear reactor is not at present a source of stable krypton even though about 9% of the krypton produced in it consists of stable isotopes.

Analytical methods. The principal method for determining and quantitatively determining the krypton content in gases is mass spectrometry and gas chromatography. Until these

Table 2 Isotopes in reactor produced krypton

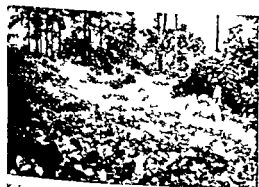
| M | be. | I | | I | |
|----|------|--------|--------|--------|--------|
| | | St. 11 | Be. 11 | St. 11 | Be. 11 |
| 8 | 80.8 | 1.7 | | | |
| 87 | | 13.1 | | | |
| 84 | | 1.7 | | | |
| 8 | | | | | |
| 86 | | 0 | | | |

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PHERIC SE PRODUCTION OF [C A C]
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Kudzu

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cale S FRUIT (TREE) [F. E. G.]

Kutnahorite

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N w J r y S CARBO ATE I E R A L S

B b l g phy J R Gold m th and D L Graf
The y t m C O - M O C O l d l t n d d [R. H.]

composition relations *Geochim et Cosmochim Acta* 11 310-334 1957

Kyanite

A nesosilicate mineral composition Al_2SiO_5 crystallizing in the triclinic system. Crystals are usually long and tabular and commonly occur in bladed aggregate. There is one perfect cleavage the specific gravity is 3.56-3.66. The hardness of kyanite one of its interesting features is 5 (Mohs scale) parallel to the length of the crystals but 7 across the length.

The luster is vitreous to pearly and the color is usually a shade of blue but may be white gray or green. See SILICATE MINERALS.

Kyanite is a polymorphic form of Al_2SiO_5 , the other forms being andalusite and sillimanite. These three minerals are found in aluminous metamorphic rocks each stable under different conditions. Kyanite is formed at low temperature and high pressure relative to andalusite and sillimanite. The transitions from one mineral to another are so sluggish that they may coexist in the same rock. See ANDALUSITE SILLIMANITE.

Kyanite is characteristically found in micaschists often associated with garnet staurolite and corundum. Fine crystals, some of gem quality, are found at St. Gothard, Switzerland. Kyanite has been mined in India and in the United States in Georgia and North Carolina for the manufacture of highly refractory porcelain. [C. S. H. C.]

in the western United States have been shown by more detailed work to be much more complex than originally described. See PLUTON [J A N]

Lacquer

A surface coating the vehicle of which contain a substantial quantity of a cellulose derivative. This derivative is most commonly nitrocellulose but may be a cellulose ester such as cellulose acetate or cellulose butyrate or a cellulose ether such as ethyl cellulose. The term is sometimes used for other coatings which have properties and uses similar to those of lacquers particularly clear metallic coatings. Originally lacquers were coatings produced by the use of the juice of a tree of the sumac family but these materials often called Oriental or Chinese lacquers are not widely used today.

Lacquers are made by dissolving nitrocellulose and other modifying materials in a solvent and pigmenting if desired. They dry by evaporation of the solvent. Because solvents with very high volatility may be used extremely fast drying times may be obtained and lacquers are usually applied by spray. The drying time may be extended to all low brushing but brushing lacquers are not commonly used.

Nitrocellulose is not soluble in conventional paint thinners so that a mixture of solvents usually containing esters (ethyl acetate) aromatic hydrocarbons (toluene) and petroleum thinners are used. Alcohols and other solvents may be present. The solvents must be chosen carefully for the combination of solvency and evaporation rate required.

Nitrocellulose is very hard its flexibility is modified by the addition of plasticizers. These may be vegetable oils such as castor or linseed which have been modified to be compatible with nitrocellulose or chemical compounds such as dibutyl phthalate or tricresyl phosphate. Numerous other materials are also used for this purpose. The adhesion of lacquers can be improved by the addition of other resins and the effect also may reduce the cost by allowing the use of less expensive solvents or alternatively allowing the application of heavier film.

Historically the development of lacquer came in the early 1920 when ample supplies of relatively inexpensive chemical solvents became available after World War I. This coincided with the great increase in the production of automobiles and the demand for a fast drying weather resistant finish which could be used to replace the previously used enamel which required long drying periods. Lacquers still constitute the finish used on about one half the automobiles produced in the United States and furnish a substantial portion of the coating for furniture and other factory finished items.

Lacquers using other cellulose derivative are much less common. Cellulose acetate butyrate and butyrate have certain specific uses particularly for clear coatings where good weather resistance is required. Ethyl cellulose gives film

of extreme flexibility but such coating are too soft for many uses. See PAINT SOLVENT SURFACE COATING [F A]

Lacrimal gland

A tubuloalveolar or acinous kind of gland known as the tear gland. The lacrimal glands develop from the skin epithelium which folds inward over the developing eye. Two types occur among the vertebrates the lacrimal proper and the Harderian. The eye glands are first found in the amphibians associated with the inside of the lower eyelid. In urodele amphibians the eye gland extends along the inner aspect of the lower eyelid. In *Salamandra* it becomes divisible into an anterior Harderian gland associated with lower eyelid structures and a posterior lacrimal gland below the upper eyelid. In frogs and toads only the Harderian gland is present and is associated with the nictitating membrane or third eyelid which develops in relation to the lower lid.

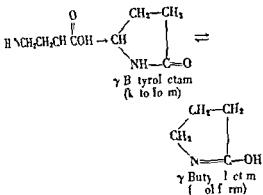
The eye glands drain into the nasal cavity by means of the lacrimal duct. In higher vertebrates with the exception of snakes certain lizards and geckos Harderian and lacrimal glands are present. In the higher vertebrates the Harderian gland functions in relation to the third eyelid or nictitating membrane and the lacrimal gland become located dorsally above the eyeball near the outer angle of the palpebral fissure. In aquatic mammals such as seals whale and sea cow the Harderian gland is the more prominent of the two sets of eye glands and it secretes a chaceous or oily substance. In land mammals the lacrimal gland proper is highly developed as a complex tubuloalveolar structure with several ducts which pour their copious fluid into the outer upper part of the conjunctival sac or cavity. The tear ulcers which wash across the eyeball to the inner palpebral fissure or commissure. Eventually it passes through two small openings one on the margin of each lid into the lacrimal duct. The latter converge to form the lacrimal sac from which the nasal lacrimal duct lead into the nasal passage. Tear contains a considerable quantity of the common salt sodium chloride. See FRITHELIUM EYE FIBROUS ORDERS GLAND [OF]

Lactam and lactim

Lactams are internal (cyclic) amides formed by heating γ and δ amino acid structurally they are nitrogen analog of the corresponding γ - and δ lactone. Thus γ -aminobutyric acid readily forms γ -butyrolactam commonly known as pyrrolidone.

The formulas show lactim to be tautomeric in the form of lactams with which they form an equilibrium. Either the lactam nitrogen carries a free hydrogen.

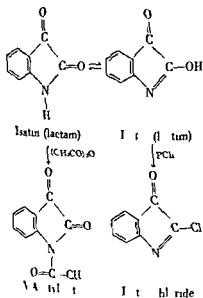
Pyrrolidone has weakly acidic and basic properties forming a hydrochloride and a sodium salt. Alkylation of the latter gives alkyl pyrrolidone.



With a ethyl ne N inylpyrrolid e f m poly me g t p l y s y p r h d n e the latt r i u s e d i s e r v o l p y f o h a s i t g

Comm r a l p d t i l p y r r l d o n e u l e e t h e r t r a t m n t f y b t y l a t o e w i t h m m o n t h e p r t l r d c t n o f s u c i m d e P p r d n e (s l l c t m) i m d f o m (s l a l o l c t e a n d m m) S m l l e r r g (s l t m s) a n d l a g e (d h g h e) m t b e m a d e b n d r e t m e t h o d b d d t n o f k e t e s t i m e s f s l c t m d g x p a i n a B e k m a n r e r r g m t f c y c l k t i m e f o a d h i g h e r l t m s.

T h t a t m e q u l b r m x t g b e t w e e n l a t m d l t m t c t u e i w l l e m p l i f i e d i a n n d a n p o d t o f i d i g



Lactase

An enzyme found n mammal h e y b e e l a r v a d m e p l a n t I t i s a β g a l a t i d a e w l c h l y d l z l a t e t a l c t e a n d g l I n m a m m a l s l a t e a p p r i n t h e i t e t i a l s c r t i n t h a t i f r m t h e i t e s t r a l v i l l a d e e r t s i t s e f f e c t o l a t e i n c h y m e S e e E z y m e G L U C O S E [D V L]

Lactate

A l a t r e t e r f l a t i c a c i d



i n w h c h t h e a c d h y d r o g e n h a s b e n r e p l a c e d l y m t a l o a o r g a n i c r a d i c a l A l k a l i m e t a l a l t a r w a t e r l i b l e t h r s a r i n l i b l e M a y a l t h p r c t a l a p p l i c a t n f r a m p l a b l o o d g u l n t n c a l c m t h e r a p y (a l c i m) a a t i p p r t (l u m u m) i n t r a t m e n t f a e m a (i n) a n d a p l t c i r (d m) L o w e r m l e c l a r w i g h t t s a r w a t e r l i l l E t e u d a o l e n t s f l a c q u e r c e l l e c t a t e a n d c e l l e n t r a t S e C A R B O X Y L I C A C I D F E T F R L A C T I C A C I D S O L V E N T [E H H]

Lactation

T h e f a t i o n a l s t a t v f t h m m m r y g l a d w h i h t h e e e t i n f m l k

S o o a f t r b i r t h t h e y o u g h b g n p i o d n u r s e r m l k r e m I A e r y m p o r t n t m e c h a n i m n l g b o t h t h e e r v o u a n d d o c r n e y t e m m i t o p l y T h a t f n r i g s n e r v e m p u l t i t h b a n d p t e i p t u r a r y w h i h t h d h r g f o x y t o n i t t h e b l o o d T h s b r m e f l t t h m m m a r y g l a n d s c a u g h t o t a t o f m e p t h e l a c e l l w h i h u r r n d e c h l l f i g t h m l k f m t h e l m e f t h e l o l n t t h e d i f f r e m a l b y t h e n l I f t h m t h r i d t i b e d t t h t i m e f r g h o r m o e d r e n l i s d c h a r g d f m t h e a d r l g l a d l f a d n a l a c h e s t h e m m m a y g l a n d b e f y t c s d i c h a r g d a t p e t t h c n t a t i o n o f t h m y o p t h l m a d m l k m a l d s n t t k e p l e T h n s i n g m t h m t b n t t e d a d f r e o f t e r c i t e m t

M i l k p r o d u c t i o n T h e f i t m l k c l t r u m s e t d b f r e p a t u r t i t p a l l y r h i n g m m g l b u l w h i c h c t n i m m n e b o d i T h d i g e s t a t t f t h n w b r n b b t h s p t n t a t n t t h e b l o d t h n f a t e m p o r y m m i t y t m m n d a e W t h t h e r e g u l r m l o f m l k t h a m n t f i m l k s r e t d u r f o a p e r d o f t i m e t h e n g r a d u l l y d l e w i t h m a l s d t d r y u p l d r y a m l h t h e w p g n a n i d u c e d b t t h t t h d y f t h l c t a n p i d L a

T h i t a t h l t m t w t h t e a n h d d t f m v t y l a t w t h p h p h u p e i h l d t e t a t h l t m g g t b l d A t h g h y d s m c d e n t i t h e r m e s t h r p d g l a t m s h w p o e d t h t p t t y S e e A l t o c r o L c t t A D L A C T V F [E B R]

tation and pregnancy with additional growth of the mammary glands occurs so that a second lactation period is initiated at yearly intervals. The total yield of milk increases each year until about the seventh or eighth year then declines with old age.

Control of secretion The secretion of milk is under hormonal control. At the time milk is removed by the mediation of oxytocin the nursing stimulus also causes a discharge of lactogenic hormone into the blood which stimulates milk manufacture during the interval between nursings. With out this hormone the cells cease to secrete milk. However there are a number of other hormones which influence the intensity of secretion. Of these the growth hormone of the pituitary gland and thyroxin from the thyroid gland are most important. The effectiveness of these hormones can be shown by their administration during the declining phase of lactation. When thyroxin is injected or thyroprotein is fed to dairy cattle at this time there usually follows an increase in the yield of milk for a period. On the other hand if the thyroid gland is removed lactation is reduced up to 40%. An optimal level of thyroxin secretion is essential for optimal milk secretion. The growth hormone which regulates body growth also plays an important role in regulating milk secretion. See MAMMARY GLAND see also ADRENAL GLAND PITUITARY GLAND THYROID GLAND [CWT]

Lactic acid

A slightly hygroscopic syrup with a specific gravity of 1.294 at 25°C. The acid also known as α -hydroxypropionic acid contains one asymmetric carbon atom and exists as two optically active isomers that can be converted by an enzyme racemase into the racemic mixture (see OPTICAL ACTIVITY RACEMIZATION). L-(+) lactic acid also called sarco lactic and paralactic acid is metabolized by animals whereas D-(-) lactic acid is not. The lactic acid of commerce is the racemic mixture commonly known as DL lactic acid (optically inactive). Annually 5 000 000 lb is produced for use in pharmaceutical preparations in the textile and leather industry in the production of inks solvents lacquers and plastics and as a food preservative.

Lactic acid may be prepared chemically although industrial production is by fermentation.

Fermentation Industrial production of lactic acid is accomplished by fermentation of refined glucose hydrolyzed starch whey and molasses. The more refined substrates are used for production of the higher grades to reduce purification costs. Sulfite waste liquor juice of culled citrus fruits enzymatically hydrolyzed potatoes and acid hydrolyzed wood mill sawdust straw cornmeal extracted beet slices and Jerusalem artichokes have also been proposed as substrates.

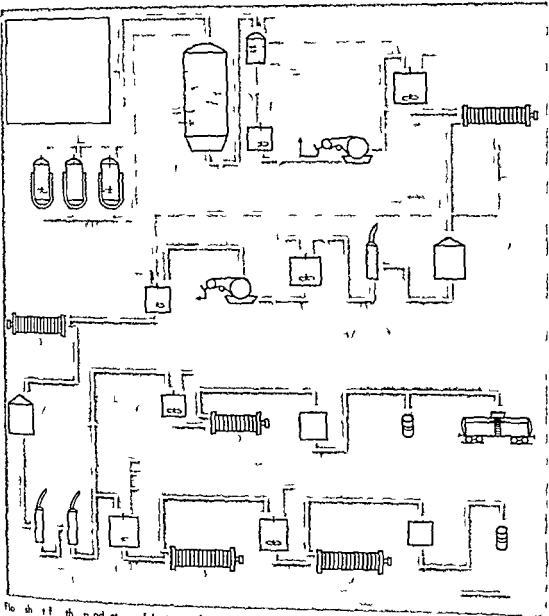
Bacteria suitable for commercial production of lactic acid may be isolated from souring foods, grains malt sprouts or soil. These organisms have complex nutritional requirements. For example *Lactobacillus delbrueckii* requires 14 amino acids and 4 vitamins and is stimulated by a number of other substances. These growth factors can be provided by adding small amounts of malt sprouts corn steep liquor distillers grains or solubles koji rice bran peanut oil cake soybean cake undenatured milk or extracts of liver and yeast. Maintenance of the culture requires frequent transfers in media of low sugar content such as 5% corn mash.

In one commercial process *Lactobacillus delbrueckii* is transferred serially from test tube to flasks to seed tanks and finally to the wooden or stainless steel fermentor maintaining an inoculum level of 10%. Each transfer is made after 16-20 hours of growth at 49°C which is continuously controlled. The medium consisting of 15% glucose 0.4% malt sprouts 0.25% diammonium phosphate and 10% calcium carbonate is not sterilized. The industry relies on cleanline, the high temperature and low pH to restrict contaminants. Butyric bacteria are the most troublesome particularly as they produce volatile acids in addition to a racemic mixture. Although the batch process is usually employed continuous processes have been developed. Contamination is a major problem.

The fermentation requires four to six days when the concentration of sugar falls to 0.1% or less and the yield reaches 90-95%. Small changes in pH adversely affect the fermentation and automatic control is advantageous. The optimum pH of 5.6-5.8 is maintained by adding sufficient calcium carbonate initially or intermittently as required although not used industrially the submerged culture

Table 1 Characteristics of lactic acid organisms

| Organism | Morphology | Substrates | Optimum temperature | Acid produced |
|----------------------------------|------------|--------------------------|---------------------|---------------|
| <i>Lactobacillus bulgaricus</i> | Rod | Lactose whey | 40°C | Racemic |
| <i>Lactobacillus delbrueckii</i> | Rod | Glucose molasses | 40°C | L(+) |
| <i>Lactobacillus brevis</i> | Rod | Pentoses hydrolyzed wood | 30°C | Racemic |
| <i>Lactobacillus plantarum</i> | Rod | Pentose ulf | 30°C | Racemic |
| <i>Streptococcus lactis</i> | Coccus | Lactose whey | 30°C | L(+) |
| <i>Bacillus coagulans</i> | Rod | Glucose lactose | 40°C | L(+) |
| <i>Rhizopus oryzae</i> | Mold | Glucose starch | 30°C | L(+) |



Flow sheet of the product filter

of RA plus yeast media 13%
 glucose 75% yield flat and 35 hours
 The fermenter has the advantage of low
 yield and no need for a pump but the ad-
 vantage of good aeration is lost
 Recirculation of the media is necessary
 for the fermentation to proceed
 The fermentation is carried out in a
 stirred tank reactor with a heating
 coil and a cooling coil. The temperature
 is maintained at 20°C. The impeller
 is a four-bladed turbine. The usual
 practice is to operate at 90 rpm with
 the fermenter is removed by filtration
 and the filtrate is then concentrated
 by evaporation. The concentrate is
 then crystallized to give the final
 product.

either concentrated or dried and
 allowed to crystallize. Lactic acid
 prepared by treatment of calcium
 lactate with sulfuric acid and
 filtration of the insoluble calcium
 sulfate. The acid is then purified
 by distillation. The acid is then
 concentrated by evaporation and
 dried. The dried acid is then
 crystallized to give the final
 product. The usual practice is to
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| <i>Lactobacillus delbrueckii</i> | Rod | Glucose molasses | 45-50°C | L-(+) |
| <i>Lactobacillus brevis</i> | Rod | Pentoses hydrolyzed wood | 30°C | Racemic |
| <i>Lactobacillus plantarum</i> | Rod | Pentoses sulfite liquor | 30°C | Racemic |
| <i>Streptococcus lactis</i> | Coccus | Lactose whey | 3°C | L-(+) |
| <i>Bacillus coagulans</i> | Rod | Glucose timothy | 45-50°C | L-(+) |
| <i>Rhizopus oryzae</i> | Mold | Glucose starch | 30°C | L-(+) |

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e f phe cal l ghtly el ngated c ccu
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morphol gy rem ms th rel ble g d t cla
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gh me t v m t prefer n t t ues h
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l

Streptococceae Th t b Strept co eae is di
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d ph l g cal h ct The p c of fu
thes D p l o c u s S t p t o c u s L e o t
d P p t e p t s s l d e t y p i c l p h r i c l
c f m h h d d n e p l a e and u lly
c p u r h r t c h s (F g 2) The fifth
m P d c c l d p e c w h h o f t
c u r t e t d g r p g n e t a t i g d n m
w p l s (F g 3)

F f t h g e a b t t h e r e g y b f e
n e t t f b h y d t r l a t e d m p d
Thes l d the p i f t h g e r a D p l o
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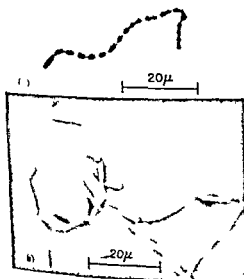


Fig 1 Morphology f th tw t b f th L c t b
Clacoe ph agraph () S t p t f l
t b e S p o c o c (b) L c t b l l b t b l
t e b o c l l e o

t l c t d p e o f t h g P d u s
b h p o d a m m x t r o f l t e a d
d L e t o p w h h p o d
s i b l e m o u t f c b o n d d e e t h y l l h l a d
t u a d m a d d t t l e v t o r y l a t d
s p e c i e s f t h e f i f t h g u P p t e p t c u s e
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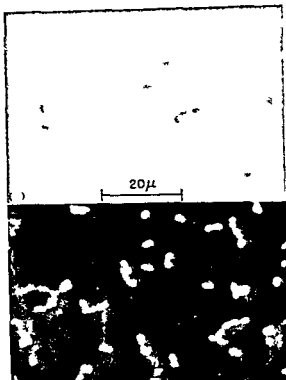


Fig 2 Ph t m g p h f l t m t
d t b S t p t () E p l i d c l l
(b) Ch d p d d g l l l

Th g e D p l c c u l d e s t h e p a a i t c
p i s D p m o c a t g e n t f l b a
p m

Th g u S t p t c i s l d m e r u p a r
t e a d p p h y t T h e g d d d t
f o p h y l g l g r p p y g e i c i d a n s
t e d l t l n g l t h f i r t t w
t f l w d p r d n g p s p e t i t h
l m e n t t t d f e t i T l d t w o
g p t h l g h e d p d c i n g t y p e a
a t d w t h f m e t t n f f d p r o d u c t s S p
t f p b y o l g l m l d r r e l t e
w l l w t h t m p t e g w t h r g e a l t t l e
d g w t h m i l k S S F R O L O G Y S T R E P T O
C O C S

Th g L s r o s l d t h e h e t e o f
m t t p e c i t d w t h f d T h e y w

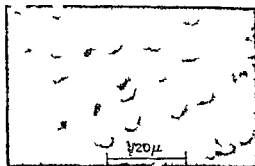


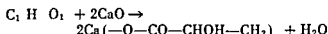
Fig 3 Ph t m g p h f t t d d p d l l

Table 2 Grades of lactic acid

| | Tech | cal | Ell | Pl | ic | USP |
|------------|---------|---------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----|
| Total dity | 44% | 50% | 50% | 50% | 85% | |
| Volatil d | 1% | 1% | 1-2% | 1-2% | ~3% | |
| Alh | 0.6% | 0.4% | 0.00% | 0.00% | 0.05% | |
| | 0.7% | 0.5% | 0.01% | 0.01% | 0.1% | |
| Commercial | Present | Present | Non | Non | Non | |
| Color | Brown | Yellow | Colorless | Colorless | Colorless | |

with bromopropionic acid (2) oxidizing 1,2 propane diol with permanganate (3) deaminating alanine with nitrous acid (4) reducing pyruvic acid (5) combining acetaldehyde with carbon monoxide at 200°C and 900 atm pressure (6) hydrolyzing acetaldehyde cyanohydrin and (7) degrading sugars with alkali. These methods produce racemic lactic acid and being more expensive than the fermentation process are not widely employed. D(-) Lactic acid may be prepared from methyl α-D-6-deoxymannopyranoside and L(-) lactic acid from methyl α-L-5-deoxyarabinofuranoside by oxidation with periodic acid and bromine in aqueous solution.

Production of lactic acid by alkaline degradation of sugars according to the following equation is the subject of numerous patents

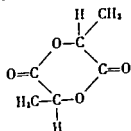


In practice however the sugars undergo many other kinds of rearrangements fragmentation and oxidation. The yield of lactate is therefore of the order of 50% of the theoretical. In alkaline solutions sugars undergo rearrangement fragmentation and oxidation to various acids. The yield of lactic acid depends on such factors as structure of the sugar concentration and type of alkali and temperature. Sucrose is most efficiently degraded and aldonic acids are superior to aldoses. When molasses is diluted to 18% sugar and treated with 13% calcium oxide for 2 hours at 230-235°C the yield of lactic acid is about 40-50%. See CARBOXYLIC ACID. [F.J.S.]

Bibliography R. Montgomery, *The Chemical Production of Lactic Acid from Sugars*, Sugar Research Foundation Sci. Rept. Ser. 11, 1949; S. C. Prescott and C. C. Dunn, *Industrial Microbiology*, 3d ed., 1959; L. A. Underkofler and R. J. Hickey (ed.), *Industrial Fermentations*, 1954.

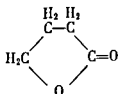
Lactide and lactone

Lactides are cyclic intermolecular double esters formed from α-hydroxy acids. Thus lactic acid, $CH_3CHOHCOOH$, on heating forms a lactide



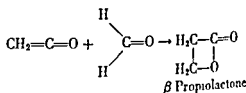
Glycolic acid, $HOCH_2COOH$, behaves analogously. In each case bimolecular interaction occurs forming the strain-free 6-membered ring. Most lactides are relatively low melting solids and are easily hydrolyzed by base to form salts of the parent acid, for example sodium lactate.

Lactones are internal cyclic monoesters formed by γ or δ hydroxy acids spontaneously, thus, γ-hydroxybutyric acid, $HOCH_2CH_2CH_2COOH$, forms γ-butyrolactone



Other lactones of smaller or greater ring size are prepared specially.

The γ and δ lactones are commonly prepared by either hydrolysis or distillation of γ or δ haloacids by treatment of an astatinated acid with aqueous hydrobromic or sulfuric acid or by partial reduction of cyclic acid anhydride. β Lactones result from the reaction of ketene with aldehydes or ketones



Large ring lactones can be made by oxidation of cyclic ketones with Caro's acid; thus cyclohexanone yields caprolactone.

The lower lactones are neutral liquids that react with bases (alkali, ammonia and amines) to give open chain derivatives of the parent hydroxy acid. Very large-ring (macrocyclic) lactones, for example 15 or 16 carbon, have pronounced musk odors (perfumes).

Unsaturated lactones (butenolides) are widely distributed; for example the angelica lactone, penicillic acid and protoanemonine (mold metabolite), coumarin (tonka bean) and coumarone (spoiled sweet clover) used medicinally as a hemorrhaging or antitussive agent in coronary thrombosis. See ESTER. [F.J.S.]

Lactobacillaceae

A family of bacteria of the order Fulcratales. Although they are primarily saprophytic, a few species are pathogenic. The bacteria are generally known as sugar fermenters producing lactic acid as a major product. They are found in fermenting food products, in the mouth in the intestinal tract and in the lily. The saprophyte usually are nonmotile and show neither reduction of nitrate, gelatin liquefaction, catalase production nor sulfide gas with in liquid media. The species are microaerophilic or anaerobic. Inactive toward proteins, sources but fastidious in their requirements. Some strains have lecithinase. [F.J.S.]

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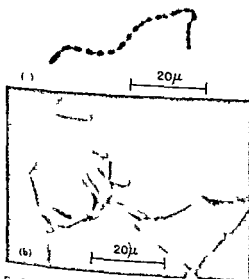


Fig 1 M rph logy f th tw t b f th lact b
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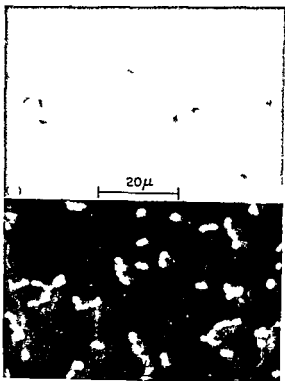


Fig 2 Ph t m g ph fl st m t
d t b *St pt* () E p l t d ll
(b) Ch d p d d gl ll

Th ge u *Dpl c us* n l de th pa a tic
p es *D p m a* a t i ag t fl b r
pn mo

The g s *St pt co* cl de n m o p
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t c a d l t l g e l the f t two c
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cocclus

Th ge *L* t l des th h t f
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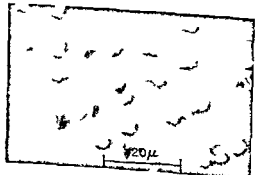


Fig 3 Ph t m g ph f t t d d p a d ll
f p d

first observed in the slime masses of sugar factories. They convert glucose to levo lactic acid alcohol carbon dioxide and acetic acid and in addition partially convert fructose to mannitol and sucrose to dextran.

The species of the genus *Pediococcus* first isolated as contaminants in beer have been observed in other fermenting foods. They include the highest acid producing species in the tribe.

The species of the genus *Peptostreptococcus* are usually anaerobic associated with septic and gangrenous conditions or found in the respiratory tract and may be pathogenic. The species differ physiologically from those in the other genera in their growth on protein decomposition products as well as on organic acids and carbohydrate with production of carbon dioxide hydrogen hydrogen sulfide and various acids in addition to lactic acid.

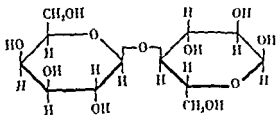
Lactobacillae The tribe Lactobacillae is divided into five genera based upon morphological and physiological characters.

The species of the genus *Lactobacillus* include the high acid producing bacteria associated with fermenting foods and the intestinal tract. They include two general groups. The homofermentative species like those of the genera *Streptococcus* and *Pediococcus* among the cocci produce lactic acid as a major fermentation end product. The heterofermentative species are comparable to those of the genus of cocci *Leuconostoc* in their growth end products.

The species of the genera *Eubacterium*, *Catenobacterium* and *Cillobacterium* are low acid producing bacteria from the intestinal tract and lesions and are comparable with species of *Peptostreptococcus* among the cocci. In addition to lactic acid formic acetic propionic butyric and other acids are formed during fermentation. Some of these may be protein degradation products. They are divided into the four genera on the basis of morphological characters motility and cell branching. The physiology of these strict anaerobes has not been completely elucidated and further work may show that some of these species should be placed in genera of other families. See **EUBACTERIALS** [C.S.P.]

Lactose

Milk sugar or 1,6- β -D-galactopyranosyl-D-glucose. This reducing disaccharide is formed as the α -D anomer; the melting point (mp) is 20°C and the optical activity is $[\alpha]_D^{25} + 83.0 \rightarrow +52.6$. Crystallizes at higher temperatures (above 93.5°C) as the



Lactose (α form reduced) FIGURE 1

β -D anomer mp 252°C and $[\alpha]_D^{25} + 33.0 \rightarrow +5.1$. Lactose is found in the milk of mammals to the extent of approximately 2-8%. It is usually prepared from whey which is obtained as a by-product in the manufacture of cheese. Upon concentration of the be- crystalline lactose is deposited. Lactose is not fermentable by ordinary baker's yeast. In the curdling of milk *Lactobacillus acidophilus* and certain other microorganisms bring about lactic acid fermentation by transforming the lactose of the milk into lactic acid $\text{CH}_3\text{CHOHCOOH}$. See **CHEESE MILK** **OPTICAL ACTIVITY**.

Chemical evidence shows that the glycosidic linkage involves the carbon atom 1 of the D-galactose and carbon 4 of D-glucose. Enzymatic studies indicate that the galactosidic linkage has the β configuration. See **OLIGOSACCHARIDE** [W.F.N.]

Lagomorpha

An order of mammals including the pikas, rabbits and hares. These were long regarded as rodents, usually under the subordinal name *Diphyidantia*, but modern studies show that lagomorphs and rodents are only remotely related if at all. For the mammals of lagomorphs are abundant from the Oligocene on but are almost unknown in the early Tertiary when the major radiation of the rodents was taking place. The hares and rabbits were already distinct from the pikas when they first appeared in the fossil record.

The living lagomorphs are distinguished by having four incisors in each jaw in stead of two as in rodents. The central pair is enlarged and chisel-like, the lateral pair reduced to small pegs lying behind the central pair. Numerous other features in the dentition, skeleton and musculature and serological tests emphasize the distinctness of the lagomorphs from the rodents. The order is divided into three families. The *Furymylidae* containing a single known genus *Furymylus* from the Paleocene of Mongolia lack the second pair of incisors. The *Ochotonidae* the pikas or rock rabbits are small short-eared nonleaping forms more primitive than true rabbits. The leprecaux are large eared leaping animals with long hindlimbs. In the rabbit the specialized than the hare, the young are born naked and helpless. Numerous domestic varieties exceed in number only by the variety of the domestic dog have been established. In the hare typified by the arctic hare and the jack rabbit the young are well haired and have their eyes open at birth. See **FURYMILIDAE** **LAGOMORPHA** **FOSSILS** [D.D.]

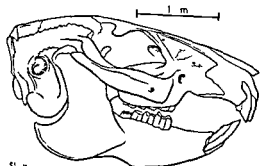
Lagomorpha fossils

The lagomorphs are divided into three families: the rabbits and hares (*Leporidae*), the pikas (*Ochotonidae*) and the primitive genera *Furymylus* and *Molagus* (*Furymylidae*). A comparison with the order of mammals reveals a little more phylogenetic clarity in the lagomorphs.

Lagomorphs may be recognized by the enamel structure of the premaxillary teeth and by the structure of the

framen ak massel nd tempo al m le fine
fenestratio s lteral rfe ce of ma ill ry and
som times other bo es ch ek teeth wth ro ts in
arl ge a, becom o less nd p res l y
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rs ³/₁ ewly b p kas can n s ⁰/_p e

lars ³/₂ m lars ³/₃ See DENTITION
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th l g t of l m l d fo t b es w th g t
r i t f l t r a l m eme t
Th ubf m ly P l l g e f the l t F e
th gh l t Ol g ne th p m d l stock f
th Lep d The g a Sh m l g G b l s
d D m t l g f m Eur d Myto l s
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to both the O h t n d d th Lep l
d h l l d t f th Ar h eola
e l e d f m P l t f i th l t Ol g ce
ly M oc M t f th l t g n w n
N rth Am a b to g n (*P l l g us*) e h d



Sk ll d i w f p l l g h y d Ol g
bb f m So h D k t (Afr A E W d 1940)

the Old W rld d ring the Pl o c e The arcl ae
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[R A S T]

Lagrange's equations

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of f i depe d t quantitie q q_i th re are
f such equat n f m t

I th r ual form thes equat ons are equiva
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d ff e t al equat ons of the second order fo the
 q as f n t n f th t me t

Derivation Let th sy t m t f A particle
The m es f the p ticles are m and th carte
si coord ate are x ($\rho = 1, 2, \dots, N$) $t = 1$
2 3) Th r t c d n tes are $x p e$ il
f t f f ($\leq 3N$) g n r l zed coord tes
 q q_i betwee wh h r a no n
t a i ts Th t me d n t ppear he e if the c n
t t ar fixed (as will be umed)

$$x = f(q_1, \dots, q_i) \quad (1)$$

The de t n g t m d ff t iat n by dot

$$\dot{x} = \sum \frac{\partial x}{\partial q_i} \dot{q}_i \quad (2)$$

Th cart n el ty omp nent are lin func
t s of th ge e l d vel ti q
L t δq epre t sm l d pl em t of th
y tem It ut m t lly on st nt with the con
t ts I th d pl ceme t th f c f n
t t d w k their nly act s t p e t
m t t y to th c t nt they h e n
mp n t i th d re ti of a d pla em t c
t t w th th n t r t If \mathcal{W} s th w k d n
d g th d pl me t t i do e nt rely by the
te ally ppl d f ces

$$\mathcal{W} = \sum F \delta x = \sum m_p x \delta \quad (3)$$

L h term n the um (3) m y r ce cont but o
f m f of n t r t b t th y c l wh n th
m mat m d Fr m Eq (1)

$$\delta = \sum \frac{\partial x}{\partial q} \delta q \quad (4)$$

th t

$$\frac{\partial x}{\partial q} = \frac{\partial}{\partial q} \quad (5)$$

It is readily verified that

$$W = \sum_j \left[\frac{d}{dt} \frac{\partial}{\partial \dot{q}_j} \left(\frac{1}{2} m_j \dot{x}_j^2 \right) - \frac{\partial}{\partial \dot{q}_j} \left(\frac{1}{2} m_j \dot{x}_j^2 \right) \right] \delta q_j \quad (6)$$

The quantity in the brackets is thus for each j the noncartesian analog of the cartesian $m \ddot{x}$.

The only quantity which appears differentiated in Eq. (6) is the total kinetic energy T of the system. This is easily calculated in generalized coordinates because the connection between the cartesian velocities and the generalized velocities is linear and homogeneous. Usually the kinetic energy can be written by inspection without using Eq. (2) explicitly. Thus

$$W = \sum_j \left(\frac{d}{dt} \frac{\partial T}{\partial \dot{q}_j} - \frac{\partial T}{\partial \dot{q}_j} \right) \delta q_j \quad (7)$$

Transforming the right hand side of Newton's equation is simpler. Write

$$W = \sum F_j \delta x_j = \sum_j Q_j \delta q_j \quad (8)$$

where
$$Q_j = \sum F_i \frac{\partial x_i}{\partial q_j} \quad (9)$$

is the j th component of the generalized force. By the preceding argument Q_j depends only on the externally applied forces; the forces of constraint necessarily cancelling in the summation.

The displacement δq_j was entirely arbitrary. Thus it follows from equating expression (7) and (8) for W that

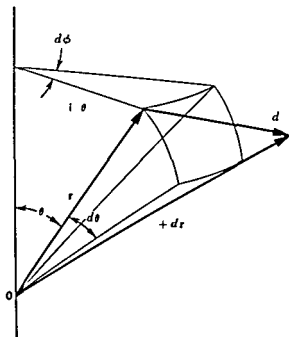


Fig. 1. The vector dr is decomposed into three orthogonal vectors of magnitudes $r \sin \theta d\phi$, $r d\theta$, and $d\phi$ respectively. θ and ϕ are spherical coordinates.

$$\frac{d}{dt} \frac{\partial T}{\partial \dot{q}_j} - \frac{\partial T}{\partial \dot{q}_j} = Q_j \quad (10)$$

These are Lagrange's equations of motion. They are valid also when moving constraints are present. See CONSTRAINT.

Examples Use of this form of Lagrange's equations is shown in the two following examples.

Particle in central force field. Here the force acting on a particle acts always through a fixed point. Choose this point as origin of a spherical coordinate system with coordinates r, θ, ϕ (Fig. 1). Only radial displacements involve work, so only Q_r differs from zero.

$$Q_r = Q_\theta = Q_\phi = 0$$

The kinetic energy is given in section of Fig. 1 to be

$$T = \frac{m}{2} (\dot{r}^2 + r^2 \dot{\theta}^2 + r^2 \sin^2 \theta \dot{\phi}^2)$$

Lagrange's equations are

$$\frac{d}{dt} \frac{\partial T}{\partial \dot{r}} - \frac{\partial T}{\partial r} = m(r - r\dot{\theta}^2 - r \sin^2 \theta \dot{\phi}^2) = Q_r$$

$$\frac{d}{dt} \frac{\partial T}{\partial \dot{\theta}} - \frac{\partial T}{\partial \theta} = m \left[\frac{d}{dt} (r^2 \dot{\theta}) - r^2 \sin \theta \cos \theta \dot{\phi}^2 \right] = 0$$

$$\frac{d}{dt} \frac{\partial T}{\partial \dot{\phi}} - \frac{\partial T}{\partial \phi} = m \frac{d}{dt} (r^2 \sin^2 \theta \dot{\phi}) = 0$$

The Q 's may be compared with the cartesian equations

$$m\ddot{x} = \frac{\partial F}{\partial x}$$

$$m\ddot{y} = \frac{\partial F}{\partial y}$$

$$m\ddot{z} = \frac{\partial F}{\partial z}$$

in which the force function F appears in all three of the equations of motion, while two of the three Lagrange equations are independent of the detailed nature of the force.

Two particles fixed separation. In this system there is one constraint, the particle being a constant distance d apart, and so there are five degrees of freedom instead of six. Choose a general set of coordinates: the cartesian coordinates x, y, z of the center of mass, and the polar angle θ, ϕ of the line joining the two particles, as in Fig. 2. Then because the kinetic energy is the sum of the kinetic energy of the center of mass and the kinetic energy relative to the center of mass

$$T = \frac{m_1 + m_2}{2} (\dot{x}^2 + \dot{y}^2 + \dot{z}^2) + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{m_1 m_2}{m_1 + m_2} \right) [d^2 \dot{\theta}^2 + \sin^2 \theta \dot{\phi}^2]$$

The equation of motion may be written immediately the generalized force being evaluated from Eq. (9). There is one equation for each degree of freedom, and the constraint automatically

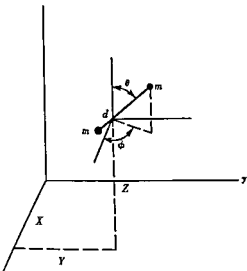


Fig 2 XYZ rt d t f th t
f f th d mbb ll m m theta d phi th p l
gles f th f th d mbb ll t f
th g t th t f m d p ll t th
fix d set f

Conservative systems In m n y p bl m th
f es Q_i ede bl f m p t n t u a l Th

$$W = \sum_i Q_i dq_i = -dV \quad (11)$$

and th s

$$Q = -\frac{\partial V}{\partial q} \quad \frac{\partial L}{\partial q} = 0 \quad (12)$$

Wh n th s o t t t defi f
t lled th Lagr g by

$$L(q, \dot{q}, t) = T(q, \dot{q}, t) - V(q, t) \quad (13)$$

Th n th q t f m t b m m p l y

$$\frac{d}{dt} \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}} - \frac{\partial L}{\partial q} = 0 \quad (14)$$

h h th m t m m l y t ed f r m f
Lagr ge equ tu
E m p l f / L A m p l b t n p b l m
ll t t th f g l ed d t nd
h w th e f p p l t f Lagr g qu
tu h T d j l t l y y t b t
Co d th d m l y t m f t w q l
m s e s m e c t d b y p g f t r g
t t k Let th d p l m t s f th m f m
th r equ l b m p o t b x d x p
tu l

N w t o d e w coo d t q = x - x
d q = + Th b = k q / 2 d

$$T = m(\dot{q}^2 + \dot{\phi}^2)/4$$

l g L = T - V Lagr g q t f th
t n b l a

$$\text{and } \frac{1}{2} m \dot{q}_1 - k q = 0 \quad \frac{1}{2} m \dot{q}_2 = 0 \quad \text{or } q_2 = 0$$

The s l t n to th first of these different al
q t n s i q = A sin sqrt(2k/m) t (ett g q_1 = 0 at
t = 0) wh h i a m p l e h a r m o n i c o s c i l l a t i o n
of the tw m a e Th co d e q u i t m e r e l y t e s t
th t the accel t n of the ce t of mass f the
syst m s

A c o n s e r v a t i v e y t m s Form (14) i a l c
t e e i f th y t m i n o t c n e r v t e p r o
v i d e d w r t e

$$Q = \frac{d}{dt} \frac{\partial V}{\partial \dot{q}} - \frac{\partial V}{\partial q} \quad (15)$$

a s i the c e of h g d p t c l e m a l c t o
m a t f i e l d H e e

$$V = e \left(\phi - \frac{\Lambda}{c} \right) \quad (16)$$

w h e phi a d A a th l r a n d e c t o p t t u a l s
f t h f i l d r p t e l y the ch a r g e f the p
t l v the p r t i l l t y a d e i s t h e l o t y
f l g h t

C y l c o d n t I f L d n t d p e n d p l t l y
o n p a r t l r d t e s a y q th

$$\frac{d}{dt} \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}_k} = 0 \quad \frac{\partial L}{\partial q} = \text{constant} \quad (17)$$

H e q k l l e d n g r a b l e y l c o o r d a t e
d L / d q i t e g r l f m t I t h e m
p l e f t h c e t l f f i e l d g n p e v i u l y phi
m a y b g d
T t l g y B y f E q (14) i t s e t h t

$$\frac{d}{dt} \left(\sum_i \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}_i} \dot{q}_i - L \right) = -\frac{\partial L}{\partial t} \quad (18)$$

H e c e f L d n t d p d p l c t l y n t h t m
th p n

$$\sum_i \left(\frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}_i} \dot{q}_i - L \right) \quad (19)$$

t g r l o f m t U l l y t th t t a l
g y f th y t m S H A M L T O N ' S E Q U A T I O N S O F
A O T I O N
C n j g t m m t u m Th q t t y

$$p_k = \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}_k} \quad (20)$$

d f i e d t b th m m t m j g t t th o
d t e q (I f Lagr o d t t b
f the p f d p a t f r the c
j g t e m m t m m t m e d f i d a . d T / d q)
Th m m t m t a r l y l m m n
t m d f i d N w t m h
h a r t d p d b th n t h y t m d n t h
t f t h c o o d t q I f q n g n b l c
d t t j g t m m t m n t t f

Kinetic momentum For a charged particle in an electromagnetic field the Lagrangian may be written

$$L = \frac{1}{2}mv^2 - e\phi + \frac{e}{c}\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{A} \quad (21)$$

and the momentum conjugate to the cartesian coordinate x is

$$p = \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{x}} = m\dot{x} + \frac{e}{c}A \quad (22)$$

The quantity $m\dot{x}$ is called the kinetic momentum. The kinetic momentum is related to p much as the kinetic energy is related to the total energy. If ϕ and A are independent of x it is the momentum p and not the kinetic momentum $m\dot{x}$ which is a constant of motion.

Relativistic systems The equations of motion of a relativistic particle may be written in Lagrangian form. The simplest way to do this is to replace the kinetic energy T by another function τ of the mass and velocity so as to get the derived form namely

$$\frac{d}{dt} \frac{\partial \tau}{\partial v_k} - \frac{\partial \tau}{\partial x_k} = \frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{m_0 v_k}{\sqrt{1 - v^2/c^2}} \right) - \frac{\partial \tau}{\partial x_k} = 0$$

Here m_0 is the rest mass of the particle. This is accomplished by setting

$$\tau = (1 - \sqrt{1 - v^2/c^2}) m_0 c$$

which reduces to T in the limit $v/c \rightarrow 0$. The equations of motion in this form are still valid in only one reference frame because the time and the coordinates are treated on different bases. See **RELATIVISTIC MECHANICS** **RELATIVITY** [P.M.S.]

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Lagrangian function

A function of the generalized coordinates and velocities of a dynamical system from which the equations of motion in Lagrangian form can be derived (see **LAGRANGE EQUATIONS**). The Lagrangian function is denoted by $L(q_1, \dot{q}_1, t; q_2, \dot{q}_2, t; \dots; q_n, \dot{q}_n, t)$.

For systems in which the forces are derivable from a potential energy V if the kinetic energy is T

$$L = T - V$$

If the system is continuous rather than discrete the Lagrangian function L is the integral of a Lagrangian density \mathcal{L}

$$L = \int \mathcal{L}(\eta(x, t), \dot{\eta}(x, t), x, t) dx$$

where $\eta(x, t)$ describes the displacement of the medium at the point (x, t) . The equation of motion are in this case

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left(\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial (\partial \eta / \partial t)} \right) + \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} \left(\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial (\partial \eta / \partial x_j)} \right) - \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \eta} = 0$$

This formulation of Lagrange equations applies to the motion of a gas containing sound waves, to a vibrating jelly or to any medium where discrete masses are replaced by a continuum [P.M.S.]

Bibliography See **LAGRANGE EQUATIONS**.

Lake

An inland body of water small to moderately large in size with its surface exposed to the atmosphere. Most lake fill depression below the zone of saturation in the surrounding soil and rock material. Generically peaking all bodies of water of this type are lake although small lakes usually are called ponds, tarns (in mountains) and less frequently pools or mere. The great majority of lakes have a surface area of less than 100 square mile (mi²). More than 30 well known lakes however exceed 1500 mi² in extent and the largest fresh water body Lake Superior North America covers 31 180 mi².

Dimensions of some major lakes

| Lake | Area (sq mi) | Surface (sq mi) | Shoreline (mi) | Depth (ft) | Volume (cu mi) |
|-------------|-----------------|--------------------|-------------------|---------------|-------------------|
| Caspian Sea | 169 300 | 1 300 | 3 300 | 6 | 3 000 |
| Superior | 31 180 | 9 000 | 1 860 | 4 | 1 000 |
| Victoria | 6 000 | 180 | 130 | | |
| Arals | 6 330 | | | | |
| Huron | 3 010 | 3 000 | 1 680 | | |
| Michigan | 1 000 | 4 660 | | | |
| Baikal | 13 300 | 18 000 | | 300 | 5 000 |
| Tanganyika | 1 000 | 8 100 | | | 4 000 |
| Chad | 11 490 | | 1 300 | | |
| Constance | 11 100 | | 1 360 | | |
| Nyasa | 11 000 | 6 800 | | 900 | 310 |
| Issyk-Kul | 9 940 | 476 | | | |
| Winnipeg | 9 390 | | 1 180 | | |
| Oka | 30 | 1 390 | | | |
| Black | 11 | | | | |
| Laurens | 000 | 1 | | | |
| Chad | 6 000 | | | | |
| Mary | 4 000 | | | | |
| Ily | 3 000 | | | | |
| Onega | 3 640 | 64 | | | |
| Reservoir | 3 4 | | | | |
| Nyasa | 3 089 | 87 | | | |
| Atitlan | 3 08 | | | | |
| Tiber | 3 00 | | | | |
| Reservoir | 11 | | | | |

Area and volume

Most lakes are relatively small with features of the earth's surface. Few measure the large lake has a maximum length of less than 100 ft (Winnipeg Canada, Baikal USSR, Albert Uganda). A few however have maximum depth which approach the maximum of Lake Baikal in the USSR is at a mile long at its deepest point, and Lake Tanganyika Africa is about 0.9 mi.

Because of their small size lakes in general may be considered as a natural feature of the earth's surface with a relatively low level of general time. Every lake has a level which is the time it carries by inflow and outflow. As the level rises the rate of outflow increases and the level falls the rate of outflow decreases.

sions. However, a few other types of depressions contain lakes: (1) craters of inactive volcanoes or calderas (Crater Lake in Oregon is a famous example); (2) depressions of tectonic or structural origin (Great Rift Valley of Africa includes Lakes Albert, Tanganyika, and Nyasa); (3) solution cavities in limestone country rock; (4) shallow depressions caused by a dotting of lakes in many parts of the tundra of high latitudes.

Conservation and economic aspects. The lakes created behind manmade barriers are becoming more and more common features to serve multiple purposes. Examples are Lake Mead behind Boulder Dam on the Colorado River, Lake Roosevelt behind Grand Coulee Dam on the Columbia, Kentucky Lake and other lakes of the Tennessee Valley, and Lake Tsimlyanskaya on the Don.

Both natural and manmade lakes are economically significant for their storage of water, regulation of stream flow, adaptability to navigation and recreational attractiveness. A few salt lakes are significant sources of minerals. Recreational utility is long important in the alpine region of Europe, and in Japan is now a major economic attribute of many American lakes. Economic value is generally increased by location near substantial human settlement. Most of the world's lakes, however, are located in regions where they have only minor economic significance at the present time. [F.A.A.]

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Lambert

A unit of luminance (photometric brightness) that is equal to 1/683 candle per square centimeter. It is also defined as the uniform luminance of a perfectly diffusing surface emitting or reflecting light at the rate of 1 lumen per square centimeter. The lambert, a large unit, is satisfactory for expressing high values of luminance from bright light sources. For more moderate values of luminance, as from fluorescent lamp or reflecting surface, the millilambert (0.001 lambert) or the foot lambert is generally used.

The luminance B in lambert is

$$B = I / (d^2 \cos \theta)$$

where I is the luminous intensity in candle, A is the surface area and θ is the angle between the normal to the surface and the line of sight. See LUMINANCE; PHOTOMETRY. [R.C.F.]

Laminar flow

Streamline flow of a viscous fluid which satisfies the Navier-Stokes equation of motion. In laminar flow, the fluid moves in layers without large irregular fluctuations (see TURBULENT FLOW). Laminar flow occurs at low Reynolds number. This criterion depends on the condition of small electric and

dimensions of bodies to very large viscosity or to small density of the fluid. Laminar flow plays an important role in several practical problems.

The flow of oil in the bearings for lubrication is laminar. The theory of laminar flow shows that under great normal pressure the oil in the bearing has only light frictional resistance.

The motion of a minute particle in a viscous fluid produces laminar flow. The drag coefficient of such a body is inversely proportional to its Reynolds number.

Flow on the surface of modern aircraft and missiles flying at extremely high altitude may be laminar. The Reynolds number for this case is usually moderate, and the viscous effect is confined to the boundary layer region of the body. Laminar boundary layer flow determines the skin friction and the aerodynamic heating of the bodies. See VELOCITY; STOKES EQUATIONS; REYNOLDS NUMBER. [S.P.]

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Lamp (electric)

In the common incandescent lamp, a resistance wire such as tungsten is heated to incandescence by an electric current. In a vapor lamp the passage of electricity through mercury vapor or sodium vapor serves to ionize the gas and produce a brilliant visible glow discharge. Inert gases may be used in place of vapors to give other colors of light as in neon lamps and in luminous tubing for advertising signs. A fluorescent lamp is a type of vapor lamp in which the radiation from a heated mercury vapor is converted into a more suitable white light by fluorescent coating on the inside of the glass tubing. In an arc lamp the light is produced by an electric arc passing through the space between two electrodes. See ARC LAMP; FLUORESCENT LAMP; INCANDESCENT LAMP; VAPOR LAMP. [J.M.]

Lamprey

Any of several species of very primitive vertebrates belonging to the class Cyclostomata. Lampreys are elongate cylindrical animals without jaw scales or paired fins. They are dark grayish to bluish black in color and are richly supplied with a slimy mucus to protect their thin skin.

Typically lampreys are external blood suckers parasitic on their fish hosts. They attach themselves to the victim by means of a round sucking mouth. Armed with horny dentition, they rasp the skin of the host until it begins to bleed. Lampreys kill their hosts by the wound until their hunger is satisfied. They drop off and hide in the mud until they are ready to feed again.



Sea lamprey, *Petromyzon*, length 3 ft. from E. L. P. M. F. I. D. B. K. I. N. I. I. H. to y. McG. H. 1949.

Th e both f e h w ter and m pecies
M t f th m a e f l ttle imp ta e the o e
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l p e y P i m y z m r n s l i e n t v e th
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the C t Lak depr i g comm l f i h m
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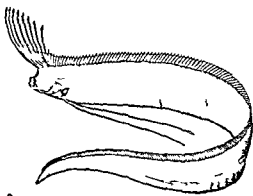
I th p g lamp ey m i t e p t m o r f r m
th t c a t a l t r e a m s t b u i l d a n e t o f
pebbles A l l a d l t s d f t p w n n g Th l r v
dev l p s th m d q u e t e d d i e s and s t r a
p l a n k t n d c e d e b i s f r o m t h w t t h o g h
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m r q t e 3-7 y e a r W h t h e y c l a n g t t h
a d l i f m t h d i f t d w t r e a m t l g r w a t e r
h e i b e t k p t h e p a t l f e M s t p a
t i m p e y l u a d l t f a p e r d f a b o u t
o e r

The r l e v l n o p a i t i s p
a l l e d b o o k l m p e y The l y d l p m e n t
d a p p a e a r t l y d i c a l t t h t o f t h
p t p e c Th y d t f e e d a d l t s
p n s o o f i r t a f r m g d d e f e w
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[J D B]

Lampridiformes

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h h a p p e t b r l t d t t h B r v f r m
The f e c p d f f t r t h d o r l
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the p l g d l r t d b t w e e n t h e c d s
o a n h e d t t h e m t h w i m b l a d d e r w i t h t
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1900

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[R M B]

Lamprophyre

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(p h e o c r y s t s) f d k l e d (m a f i c) m e r
l (b i o t i t m p h b l e p y r x e n e o r o l e)
a p p e t i n a p h a n i t i (t v i b l y c y t l
l i n e) m a t x A s a g r p t h e d a r k c k a r e c h a r
a c t e d b y (1) a b u n d a n t m a f i c m e a l s i
a s s o c i a t i w t h a l k l c h f e l d p (2) t h e p r e
e n f m a f i c s b o t h a p h r y s t s d n t h m a
t x a n d (3) n a b n d n c e o f m f i c p h c r y t i n
t h e a b c e o f f e l d p a r p h n c r y t s L a m p r p h y r e
a c h e m i c a l l y u n l T h e y h e a l w s l a c o n
t e n t a d h g h t m a g e u m n d a l k l i c t e n t
S P H E N O C R Y S T

Varieties of lamprophyre M n y r i t o f
l m p r p h y r e e k n o w n b u t n l y t h m o r e c o m m o n
a r s h w n n t h a c m p a y g t a b l e

C m m o n l m p p h y r e s

| P r i n c i p a l f e l d p a | W h o u s f e l d p a | |
|-------------------------------|-----------------------|-------------------------------|
| | W h o u s o l | W h o u s o l v i |
| B r e t e H o r n b l o d | M v o g e | K r a s t t e S p e s s a t e |
| B k k | C a m p t o n t e | M o c h q u t F o u h |

M i t e t s i t k s a n t i d s p s a t t T h e
f m t m m n t y p e s e m i e t t g e t e l e
s t i t e n d p e a r t t T h e f i s t t w a r c m m n l y
f d t o a s y n i t l a m p p h y r e t h e l s t t a
d t l a m p p h y r e s U d t h e m o p e l r g
h g l p l t f b t i t s l w z a l s t r u t e
w i t h p l e y e l l w m g n s i m r i c h c t s n d r e d
b w n n h b d r l s o m e r o c k t h e c r y s t a l
a r c r r d d S l d e p i m n e e d l e s o f
g n b o w n h r l b d a m r i n P y x n e
g e r l l y d p d a g t e h t m m e r o c k a
t t m h u g t b d n t O l i r r n
m t t y p e b t i c m m p e s a r t t

A l a g e p p r t n f t h e k m t i x i m
p e d f f l d p r P i g o l s e (l b t a d e s)
f o r m g l g n o r p l y d l p d l t h a
n d m a y h w z l t r e t w i t h l m h
c e s d o d m h b d s P t h f e l d p r
l l y r t h l d c u s e g l a
t c t g u l g n n d c m m n l y n l e
t h m a l a b n d n t u n g a n Q a t m y
b m t t u n t a d w k a p t i n t
t t l A e r y m l l i d e a p t i t e p h
n d m g e t t

C m p t u Th m m l a m p p h y r e c m p
t n t h t i d b y t h p e c f b a k e s k
t d l b a d i t e d f e l d p P y r
b t t a d l m a y m y n t b p e n t
A l t d u c h t t T h e s e t e r e
b t t l m p p h y T h e y f l d p f b u t
r v m l t r f l d p t h d A l o t c h a t e
e d b y l e p d m l p h e o c y t d b y t h p e s

ions. However, a few other types of depressions contain lake. (1) craters of inactive volcanoes or calderas (Crater Lake in Oregon is a famous example). (2) depression of tectonic or structural origin (Great Rift Valley of Africa include Lake Albert, Tanganyika and Nyasa). (3) solution cavities in lime stone country rock. (4) shallow depression can be a dotting of lakes in many parts of the tundra of high latitudes.

Conservation and economic aspects The lake created behind manmade barriers are becoming more and more common features to serve multiple purpose. Examples are Lake Mead behind Boulder Dam on the Colorado River, Lake Roosevelt behind Grand Coulee Dam on the Columbia, Kentucky Lake and other lake of the Tennessee Valley and Lake Timpaniava on the Dniester.

Both natural and manmade lakes are economically significant for their storage of water regulation of stream flow adaptability to navigation and recreational attractiveness. A few artificial lakes are significant sources of minerals. Recreational utility long important in the alpine region of Europe and in Japan is now a major economic attribute of many American lakes. Economic value is generally increased by location near substantial human settlement. Most of the world's lakes however are located in regions where they have only minor economic significance at the present time. [FAA]

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Lambert

A unit of luminance (photometric brightness) that is equal to 1/683 candle per square centimeter. It is also defined as the uniform luminance of a perfectly diffusing surface emitting or reflecting light at the rate of 1 lumen per square centimeter. The lambert, a large unit, is satisfactory for expressing high values of luminance from bright light sources. For more moderate values of luminance, as from fluorescent lamp or reflecting surface, the millilambert (0.001 lambert) or the foot lambert is generally used.

The luminance B in lambert is

$$B = -dI/(dA \cos \theta)$$

where I is the luminous intensity in candle, A is the surface area and θ is the angle between the normal to the surface and the line of sight. See LUMINANCE PHOTOMETRY [RCP]

Laminar flow

Streamline flow of a viscous fluid which satisfies the Navier-Stokes equation. In laminar flow the fluid moves in layers without large irregular fluctuations (see TURBULENT FLOW). Laminar flow occurs at low Reynolds number. This corresponds to the condition of small velocities and

dimensions of bodies to very large viscosity or to small density of the fluid. Laminar flow plays an important role in several practical problems.

The flow of oil in the bearing for lubrication is laminar. The theory of laminar flow shows that under great normal pressure the oil in the bearing has only light frictional resistance.

The motion of a minute particle in a fluid produces laminar flow. The drag coefficient of such a body is inversely proportional to its Reynolds number.

Flow on the surface of modern aircraft and missiles flying at extremely high altitude may be laminar. The Reynolds number for this case is usually moderate and the viscous effect is confined to the boundary layer region of the body. Laminar boundary layer flow determines the skin friction and the aerodynamic heating of the vehicle. See NAVIER-STOKES EQUATIONS, REYNOLDS NUMBER [51].

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Lamp (electric)

In the common incandescent lamp a resistance wire such as tungsten is heated to incandescence by an electric current. In a vapor lamp the passage of electricity through mercury vapor or sodium vapor serves to ionize the gas and produce a brilliant visible glow discharge. Inert gases may be used in place of vapor to give other colors of light as in neon lamps and in luminous tubing for advertising signs. A fluorescent lamp is a type of vapor lamp in which the radiation from ionized mercury vapor is converted into a more useful white light by fluorescent coating on the inside of the glass tubing. In an arc lamp the light is produced by an electric arc passing through the space between two electrodes. See ARC LAMP, FLUORESCENT LAMP, INCANDESCENT LAMP, VAPOR LAMP.

Lamprey

Any of several species of very primitive vertebrates belonging to the class Cyclostomata. Lampreys are elongate cylindrical animals without jaw scales, or paired fin. They are dark grayish to bluish black in color and are richly supplied with a slimy mucus to protect their thin skin.

Typically lampreys are external parasites. They attach themselves to the victim by means of a round sucker. Armed with horny denticles, they rasp the skin of the host until it begins to bleed and suck the fish's blood. They drop off and hide in the mud until they need more food.



Se l m p y P t myzo ma s le ght 3 ft (from
E L Palm F l dbook f Nat l H t y McG w
Hil 1949)

ence of melilite, perovskite, olivine and carbonate in the matrix. Ouachitite is devoid of olivine and may carry more or less glass and considerable augite as phenocrysts.

Monchiquite and fourchite The rare types monchiquite and fourchite lack feldspar but carry more or less barkevikite in addition to augite, biotite, analcite and glass. Monchiquite is distinguished from fourchite largely by the presence of olivine.

Alteration products Lamprophyres are highly susceptible to weathering and many are so completely decomposed that it is impossible to do more than approximate their original mineral composition. Common products of alteration include carbonate, chlorite, serpentine and limonite.

Occurrence Lamprophyres occur most commonly in small or shallow intrusives (dikes, sills and plugs) and are frequently associated with large bodies of granite and diorite. Lamprophyre dikes may form parallel swarms or, as at Spanish Peaks, Colorado, may form groups which radiate from a common center.

Formation Lamprophyres form in a variety of ways. Some are products of direct crystallization of lamprophyric magma (rock melt); others represent older rock which has been converted by metamorphic or metasomatic action. Normal basaltic magma may be made lamprophyric by a simulation of foreign material. That such a process has operated is suggested by the presence in some lamprophyres of abundant foreign rock and mineral fragments. The mafic phenocrysts commonly show strong resorption indicating they were not in equilibrium with the adjacent liquid. Early formed mafic crystals may settle out of a deep, slowly crystallizing magma. Clusters of these may be reincorporated in the late, alkali-rich fraction of the melt just before it is erupted to form lamprophyre at higher levels.

Some normal basaltic dikes appear to have been transformed to lamprophyre after solidification. This metamorphic or metasomatic change could have been accomplished by vapors or fluids which were driven out from the deeper crystallizing portions to permeate and alter the solidified portions above. Similar emanations from deeply buried granitic masses may be channelled along dikes of basalt or diabase in the underlying rocks and convert them to lamprophyres.

Some bodies of lamprophyre which resemble dikes may not actually be intrusive. They may have formed when solution or fluids from depth moved up along fracture and reacted with the adjacent rock and converted it to lamprophyre. See DIABASE, IGNEOUS ROCKS, METASOMATISM. [C. A. C.]

Lancefield differentiation scheme

An accurate means of identifying most streptococci. The procedure was determined by Rebecca Lancefield and it applies to the streptococci, the β hemolytic types which have major significance. Strains from many sources can be classified in terms of their natural host with al-

though to produce disease in this host as well as in other hosts. However, the immunochemical (serologic) differentiation system of Lancefield depends on the presence within the bacterial cell of a specific carbohydrate, the so-called C substance, which determines the group. The definition of the group depends on the precipitation of the C substance in a clear bacterial extract with appropriate rabbit antisera. Designations of the group now 13 in number extend from A through O with two alphabetic omissions.

The streptococci of Group A are almost always responsible only for human illness. Most strains of Group B are from animal and are especially important in producing mastitis or udder infection in cows. Group C is unusual in that it includes both animal and human pathogens and distinction cannot be made by this method alone. Group D streptococci are found in dairy products and in the intestinal tract of man and animals. They are a cause of urinary tract infection and of subacute bacterial endocarditis, which is an infection of the inner lining of the heart, especially the heart valves. Subacute bacterial endocarditis is a complication of congenital or rheumatic heart disease. Both human diseases represent the ability of ordinarily benign organisms to be pathogenic when there is some basic deformity which interferes with normal function. Streptococci of Groups E and N are found in milk cream and cheese but have no relation to infection. Groups F and G are occasionally human pathogens, while H and K strains do not provoke illness. People may harbor those of Group H, K, and O which are almost uniformly innocuous. Dogs likewise merely carry Group M streptococci but canine skin can be caused by strains of Groups L and C.

F. Griffith at the same time the Lancefield system was developed utilized agglutination to define types within each group. Agglutination is a serologic method in which intact organisms are clumped by appropriate typed rabbit antisera. There was a time when both methods were used, one for the determination of group and the Lancefield precipitation test with type electively. Griffith's agglutination test. It was later noted that the type found by both methods need not be in complete agreement. This led to the study by Dr. Lancefield and her associates of the bacterial antigen or chemical substance concerned. It was found that two proteins, M and T, were involved in differentiating types within groups. Only the M substance of the Lancefield method was specific for each type of microorganism while more than one T substance could be present.

Serologic classification is not commonly employed since it is time consuming and not always accurate. In a clinical hospital laboratory, for example, streptococci can be satisfactorily and rapidly recognized by their typical appearance on vital growth medium. Appropriate signs and symptoms in the patient are supportive evidence.

ble economies in such services as transportation power and waste disposal. As deterioration of the central city and in residences, stores, service establishments, and industries favored the suburbs for new location. This situation makes forcefully evident the need for public decisions and public controls on major aspects of land use in the central city and in the mushrooming suburbs of every metropolitan center of the country.

Principal planning areas. Early land use planning effort sprang from two apparently distinct and different problems areas. (1) rural areas where the planning task has been concerned largely with giving more conscious direction to the use of land for natural productive purposes (crops, forage, forests, wildlife, fisheries, or water flow) and the goal has been to direct the use of the land in accordance with its capability; and (2) urban areas where the planning task has been principally concerned with space arrangement of major urban land uses. In this case the goal has been to design the city layout to achieve greater convenience, safety, and economy in urban living.

Rural land planning emphasizes the development of land use patterns which serve man's long range needs and at the same time reflect the natural resource capability that is the physical and biological limits beyond which long-run depletion of the land resource will result. Increasingly private land operators are learning that production according to land capability is good business. There is also increasing recognition by the public that there is a major common interest in intelligent rural land use planning. The Federal government provides various inducement and aids designed to improve rural land use. Local and state governments are experimenting with land use controls, for example, zoning lands for forest and pasture which are unsuitable for crop, designating lands well suited to farming as agricultural and marking out for future subdivision those areas best adapted for that purpose.

City land use planning, originating from the desire for the city beautiful, has moved from an emphasis upon aesthetic design to functional design. It attempts to anticipate long range needs for urban services through the study of growth trends and to design a pattern of land use which will promote convenience and economy in supplying urban services as well as an aesthetically pleasing space arrangement. Recent policies of both Federal and state governments encourage cities to conduct a continuing planning program.

Since the great depression of the 1930's both Federal and state governments have cooperatively organized studies for the purpose of developing plans for improved productivity of land and related resource of various large natural regions of the nation. The Great Lakes-Cut Over Region and the Northern Great Plains were areas early subject to such regional studies. The creation of the Tennessee Valley Authority in 1933 marked a further emphasis upon regional resource planning. TVA

and later endeavors in river basin development have had as their primary planning objective the discovery of improved economic opportunities and social amenities which could be realized by a planned use and management of the land, water, and related resources.

This objective stands in contrast to the early more limited view of the city planner, forester, and conservationist. The early city planner looked at the blighted city and visualized its rehabilitation. He studied trends and sought to design his city layout for the inevitable growth. He had little concern with questions of planning to promote growth. The early forester and general conservationist dealt on natural limitations and emphasized protective measures to avoid continued misuse. Later measures have been based upon land capability and scientific husbandry were formulated. The measures first emphasized the repair and rehabilitation of the physical and biotic environments which suffered from past misuse. Gradually the increase of goods and service from natural resource has become an additional justification for the conservation measure. Comprehensive regional planning now purports a positive integration objective for land planning designed to achieve maximum net social benefit (economic and noneconomic) for the use of the land now and in the future.

The growth and importance of regional resource development is indicated by the rapid expansion since World War II of Federal, state, and local resource planning activities. Notable are programs in regions such as the Ohio River Basin, the Missouri River Basin, the Columbia Valley, the Central Valley of California, the Arkansas-White and Red River basin, the St. Lawrence Valley, the New England and New York region, and the Delaware River Basin. In addition, hundreds of local organizations such as watershed associations, various special district and intergovernmental planning committees have sprung up in response to land use problems in a variety of areas. Often the smaller region may be dominated by a vigorous urban center. Here rural type resource development problems intermingle with the problem of pace allocation and design of the spreading urban area. Land use planning during the latter half of the twentieth century is challenged to meet the need of a new planning area, one composed of overlapping metropolitan and involving new admixture of rural and urban land use problem.

Land use planning and the future. Current trends in land use planning suggest fundamental elements in its concepts and practices which should characterize the future. First, the problem of integrating the pace of consideration of urban planning and the resource considerations of rural planning will demand increasing attention of professional planner, governmental official, and interested citizen. Conceptual and methodological interchange and adaptation should take place between the pace designation of the city planner and the resource capability orientation

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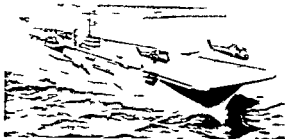
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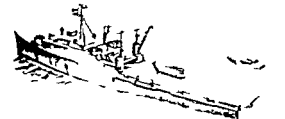
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craft

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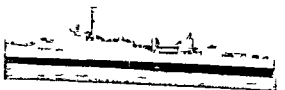
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carried on the main deck. The LST 1173 shown in Fig. 4 is 446 ft long and displaces 7800 tons.

The LSM (Landing Ship Medium) is a beaching ship with an open well and a bow ramp. Its design was derived from a combination of LST and LCU. The LSM is 204 ft long and displaces 1095 tons.

The LSMR or Landing Ship Medium (Rocket) is a conversion of the LSM. The LSMR provides close in fire support with a barrage of rocket bombardment for an assault landing operation. The LSMR is 204 ft long and displaces 1276 tons.

Landing craft. The LCU or Landing Craft Utility (assault) discharges tanks, mobile equipment, general cargo, and personnel directly onto the beach. The LCU is designed for limited voyages and usually is carried to the unloading area by an LPD, LSD, or LST. The LCU 1613 shown in Fig. 5 is 135 ft long and has a combat landing displacement of 370 tons.

The LCM (Landing Craft Mechanized) is used in a ship to shore operation and lands on a beach to discharge vehicles or cargo. A typical LCM is 74 ft long with a maximum displacement of 127 tons and is designed to carry one heavy tank, 60 tons of cargo, or 200 troops.

The LCPL or Landing Craft Personnel (Lead) is a dual purpose boat for guiding other landing craft in an assault wave in a ship to shore operation. The LCPL is 36 ft long and has a capacity of 4500 lb of cargo. As a personnel boat, it has a crew of 3 and carries 17 men.

Amphibious vehicles. The LVT (Landing Vehicle Tracked) is an armored amphibian. It can negotiate a surf up to 15 ft high and discharge 34 men inland. The LVT-5 (Fig. 6) is 30 ft long

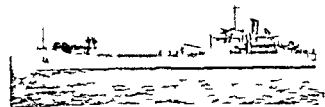


Fig. 4 The LST 1173 designed to discharge tanks and other vehicles directly onto a beach (Official U.S. Navy photograph)



Fig. 5 The LCU 1613 used to discharge vehicles, equipment, and personnel directly onto a beach (Official U.S. Navy photograph)

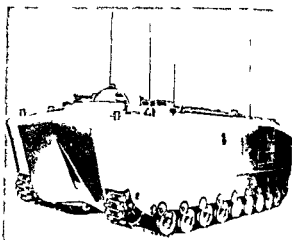


Fig. 6 The LVT-5 is an armored amphibian (Official U.S. Navy photograph)



Fig. 7 The DUKW developed for landing on sandy beaches (Official U.S. Signal Corps photograph)

and has a cargo capacity of 6 tons in water or 9 tons on land.

The BARC (Barge Amphibious Re supply Cargo) is a wheeled amphibious vehicle for over the beach handling of cargo. Used by the U.S. Army, it is 63 ft long and has a cargo capacity of 60 tons.

The BDLIX (Beach Discharge Lighter) used by the U.S. Army carries vehicular and other types of cargo on the main deck for ship to shore landing operation. When retracting from the beach it is assisted by a hydraulically operated ram. The BDLIX is 338 ft long, displaces 4126 tons, and is capable of transoceanic voyage.

The DUKW (Truck Amphibian 2 1/2 Ton) commonly called duck, is used by the U.S. Army to transport cargo or personnel on land or water (Fig. 7). It is 36 ft long and has a cargo capacity of 5175 lb. [H. J. M.]

Landscape architecture

Defined by Charles Eliot, one of America's first landscape architects, as the art of arranging and fitting land for human use and enjoyment. Landscape architecture is an applied art founded on the premise that use and beauty are compatible and that neither is complete without the other.

The service of the landscape architect is similar to that of a building architect in all consultation, preparation of reports, plan, specification,

k lant n of th e l l c t r and emitter The
 n n m a r Ch l l l w a p p l s to a c l e a p p x i m a
 n to th e r e l e c t r o d g r e s a s w l l Th
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 t h e c u r r e n t d e t y f i a t m o t 13° See D i o d e
 C U M S P A C E C H A R G E [E C R A]

anolin

h h y d u h e e p s w o o l f a t (p m s i f y c h o l e s -
 t e s t e s f i g h e r f a t t y a i d) d e d e a a b y
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 e

L a l w d l y u d a h e f m l l n t
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 t u h a s l g h t a n t p t i c f t e a d h g h r e
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 r w o t h t a t h a s c n t n u e d w i d e a s a b a e f o r
 k n t m t A c t a l l y l a n l n h d s a b r p t n
 f n f t h m e d a t t h r e h t h k n a o m p r e d t
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 o f b l e i n a l c o h o l t h e r h l o f o m a d b e
 S F A T A D O I L V O X E D I B L E [C C O]

Lantern slides

P t e t p e n t p e t u o g l a f i l m w h i c h
 c a b e e w e d b y p i t n o t r f l e t g c e n
 o n h a n d e s r d e s n w h i c h t h f t r e
 a p r o j e c t e d t h e r r o f d i f f g s r e n
 S n d s e e U n i t e d S t a t e s 3 b y 4 B t
 s h . 3 4 b y 3 1 C n t e n t 1 8 5 b y 1 0 0 m m
 t t m e d a t C o t t a l 1 0 b y 0 m m 2 1/2 b y
 2 m i t t r (t h m t p p l) 2 b y 2
 T h e l i t s i z e a m d a e d e e w h e r T h e
 a p e r t u r e s e o f t h e m k e d p i t r s h e b e n
 t n d r e d A l t h u g h h l k a n d w h i t t a p
 e e s t d b e n m a d a 2 b y 2 n z e f r o m m n
 t e m n g a t i n e t h e e d a y o f t h t
 t p e f m r a t h p r t r a p p l a t y
 f t h b y l d a d t h p p r o p r a t p r o j e c
 t o r a d f d n f t t h m i t u r c a m
 e r n u e l l t m s f r m t h i n t o d u t n f k d
 t m f i l m d i s t n f r m p r o e g i t h e
 a d o o d k d k r d j M u t a t h k d a l d
 t n p r v
 S l d r p r j t e d e t n l p j c t o s
 (p l a t t n) n t g f c n t a t e d
 w o u t l i g h t n d e t m h l d (o
 h n g e) f r t h l d a p j t n f e a d (u
 e l) a b l f r o o l g t h s l d (s e P R O J E C
 T I N G S Y S T E M S O P T I C A L) T e n g t n f i l m t l m p
 g e n e r a l l y w t h p e f o c e d b e d n w t t
 s e s f m 1 5 0 t 1 0 0 0 d e p d g r n t h p o
 j e c t e d p i t m l m a t t a g a f h m
 o T h f o c a l l g t h f t h l e r n e d b y t h
 p r o j e c t d e e d s c r e e s e M a y
 t f f l i h a g r m d i n l d g h n d
 f o u l g f l e s a t a t m a h n g r w h l c

the two slide (on 1 langed while the other is
 project d) ca tt whi h c r r i e a g r u p o f
 l d a n d f e d l i d n a n d o u t e m i a u t m a t i
 a l l y a n d a m a g a i n e o f l i d e w h i c h a r e a o c a t e d
 w i t h t m e r a d a r e f e d a n d c h a n g e d f l y u t o
 m a t a l l y c m e h o l d e r s c a r v l o n g r o l l s f i l m
 a n d f i l m t r i p

S l i d e s p a t i c u l a r l y i n t h e m u n a t r i e c a n b
 e w e d i n h a n d i e r o r t a b l e w e The
 f o r m e h a v e m e a f o a l l m n a t i g t h e l d e
 p o n t i n g t t t h k y r t a l a m p o r u g l m p
 i n l d e d i n t h e i w e r f e l d l a t t r a l l
 o u t l e t o p r a t n a n d a i m p l e m a g i f g l e n
 T h e y a t m a d f r g l e r t e r l d e T b l e
 j e w e a r r e a l l y m l l p o j e t r s g i n g n i m a g e
 f m d e a t m g n i f a t f o r e w i g a r e a
 p r o j e c t r n a n d h a m a n u l o r a u t m a t c
 s l i d e c h n g e L a r g e d p l a y t r a s p a r e n c e (1 8
 b y 6 0 f t t h c a e f t h e h l a k C o l a m a t
 G r a n d C e n t a l S t a t i o n n N w Y o k C t y) u
 b a n k o f l i g h t g i u n f r m i l l u m i n a t i o n r a
 d i s s u n g a c r e e n i m m e d i a t e l y b e h n d t h e p i c t u r e
 [W C]

Lanthanide contraction

T h e n m e g e n t o a n u n u a l p h n m e n n e n
 u t r e d i n t h r e e r t h e e s f e l e m e n t T h e
 d o f t h a t m o f t h m e m b e r o f t h e e r i d e a
 c a n l i g h t l y a s t h e t i m n u m b e r i n c r e a s e s
 S t a r t i n g w i t h e l e m e n t 5 8 n t h e p e d i c t b l e
 b l o n g e l t r n f i l l i n n n e r i m p l e t e 4/
 h l l a s t h h r g e n t h e u l i m e r e A c
 c o r d i n g t o t h e t h e o r y o f a t m i u r t h i h e l l
 n f l d 1 4 e l e t r o n s o t a r t i n w i t e l e m t 5 8
 r o u m t h r e a e 1 4 t r u r r e a r t h s L a t h a n m
 h n l e t n s t h e 4/ h l l m h a l a d
 l i t m 1 4 T h e 4/ e l e c t r p l y l m t r l e
 i h m c l a l c e a l l r a e e r t h c a n h a e 3
 l e t s t h e r l e c h e l l n d t h e y a l l e s t
 a t r a l e n t n o l u o n A s t h e c h a g n t h e
 v l e i n r e a s e t h e r a r e e r t h s a l l
 l e t n e p l l e d n c l e r t h n l u t h a t
 t h r a d f t h e r e a t h o n d a s l i g h t l y a
 t h m p u n d g r t h e r a r e t h r e A y
 g n m p d f t h a r e e r t h y l l e k e l y
 t l l z e w i t h t h m s t r u c t u r e a a y t h e r
 e t h H w e r e t h e l t t i c p r a m t e b m e
 m a l l e r d t h e r y t a l d n e r a t h c m p n d
 p d e t h e s T h i s e n t r a t i o n o f t h e
 l a t t e p m t e k n a n d e l a n t h d n
 t a t n F m n y m p u d t h e l i t p a m
 t d e a l p r t w a y a r t l r e s a d
 w h n t h o r t n h p r g e e d f r w
 v l l e s f m d e v l o p F q e t l v b t h e r t l
 l f r m c n b o b e r v e d f n u m t o f t h
 l m t F o t h r n t h a r t h e s
 f p t l r i t t o e t t b m a y o f
 t h p r m t d t e m a n g t h p p e r t i e f a
 i b t c e a b e k p t t a t w h i t h l a t t
 p s g n b r i d z m l l i e m t a c r s
 t h e s e s

T h t m d i o r a d f a t m a r e n t
 l r l d f i e d T h a t m n b e p l r i e d b y t h e

Debris fall A relatively free downward or forward falling of unconsolidated or poorly consolidated earth or rocky debris constitutes this type. Debris falls are common along undercut banks of rivers from walls of rapidly eroding gullies and in steep excavations.

Rockslide This type applies to any downward and usually rapid movement of newly detached segments of the bedrock sliding on bedding or any other plane of separation. Rockslide may form wherever dipping strata or jointed rocks are interrupted downslope by any kind of cut. They include some of the greatest of recorded landslides. A rockslide in the Gros Ventre River valley of Wyoming in 1925 (Fig. 2) for example displaced 50 000 000 yd³ for a total of about 2000 ft down a dip slope of 18-21° and dammed the Gros Ventre River. See **ROCK MECHANICS**.

Rockfall The relatively free falling of a newly detached segment of bedrock of any size from a cliff or steep slope is called rockfall. Rockfalls are common along headwalls of glacial cirques and on wave-cut cliffs. They are a constant hazard on vertical rock cuts along transportation routes where the fall of a block weighing even a few pounds may disable a vehicle or kill its occupant. Many of the world's largest landslides have been combinations of rockslide and rockfall. Rockfalls into fiords and mountain lakes sometime produce enormous waves capable of demolishing waterfront villages. See **EROSION**.



Fig. 2 Gros Ventre landslide of July 23 1925 showing scar and low point of slide debris in Goshute County Wyoming (USGS)

Prevention and control of landslides This depends primarily on avoidance of unsuitable construction in areas of old slides or recognizable mass movement hazard. Other basic measures for prevention and control include excavation to remove fallen or unstable material; drainage of unstable or potentially unstable material to reduce weight and increase shear resistance; and to prevent additional water from gaining access to dangerously placed masses; placement of retaining structure such as piling buttresses retaining walls cribbing and wire fences or netting to keep fallen rocks off communication routes. Warning devices are sometimes used to close railroad blocks

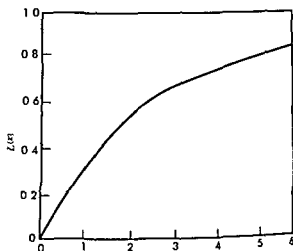
when fallen rocks or debris slides enter a right of way [C.F.S.]

Bibliography *Landslides and Engineering Practice* NAS NRC Publ. 544 Highway Research Board Spec. Rep. 29 1958 C.F.S. Sharpe *Landslides and Related Phenomena* 1938

Langevin function

A mathematical function which is important in the theory of paramagnetism and in the theory of the dielectric properties of insulators. The analytical expression for the Langevin function displayed in the accompanying figure is

$$L(x) = \coth x - 1/x$$



Plot of Langevin function

If $x \ll 1$ $L(x) \approx x/3$. The paramagnetic susceptibility of a classical (non quantum mechanical) collection of magnetic dipoles is given by a Langevin function as is the polarizability of molecules having a permanent electric dipole moment. In the quantum mechanical treatment of paramagnetism the Langevin function is replaced by the Brillouin function. For further discussion see **DIELECTRIC CONSTANT** **PARAMAGNETISM** [F.A.F.K.]

Langmuir Child law

A law governing space charge limited flow of electron current between two plane parallel electrodes in vacuum when the emission velocities of the electrons can be neglected. It is often called the three halves power law and is expressed by the formula

$$j(\text{amp/cm}^2) = \frac{\epsilon}{9\pi} \left(\frac{2e}{m} \right)^{1/2} \frac{V^{3/2}}{d^2} = 2.33 \times 10^{-6} \frac{V(\text{volts})^{3/2}}{d(\text{cm})^2}$$

Here ϵ is the dielectric constant of vacuum $-e$ the charge of the electron m its mass V the potential difference between the two electrodes d their separation and j the current density at the collector electrode or anode. The potential difference V is the applied voltage reduced by the difference in

Atomic and Ionic radii of rare earth metals

| El m nt | R i A 3+ n | Met l cry t l t t ^a | A t f f e t A | d |
|---------|---------------|-----------------------------------|------------------|--------|
| Sc | | l p | 1 6 4 | 1 6 80 |
| Y | | l cp | 1 8 37 | 1 7780 |
| La | 1 061 | l p | 1 88 | 1 8691 |
| C | 1 071 | fcc | 1 8 18 | |
| P | 1 013 | l p | 1 83/3 | 1 8 01 |
| Nd | 0 99 | l p | 1 8 90 | 1 8139 |
| Pm | 0 9 9 | | | |
| Sm | 0 9 4 | l n l p | 1 810 | 1 7943 |
| F | 0 9 0 | l c | 1 991 | |
| Cd | 0 938 | l cp | 1 8180 | 1 786 |
| Th | 0 9 3 | l p | 1 800 | 1 6 6 |
| Dy | 0 908 | l p | 1 79 | 1 7 15 |
| Ho | 0 894 | l cp | 1 7887 | 1 4 8 |
| Er | 0 881 | l cp | 1 7794 | 1 7310 |
| Tm | 0 869 | l p | 1 7688 | 1 37 |
| Yt | 0 8 8 | f | 1 9397 | |
| Lu | 0 818 | l cp | 1 7 16 | 1 1 1 |

D t f o m D H T m p l t t C l H D l n
J A m Ch Soc 6 5 37 39 19 4
b D t f m F l l Sp d l l g A H D n a n l k W
He r m n n l l C y l 9(7) 9 563 19 6 l cp l c g o n l
l o p c k l f f t l c l c h m r l m l c b c
l o d y t r e l l

D t f m k W H m n D t l t d
l l l d f m t m l l l
d D t f o m k W H m D t l t t b
t w l y r s

neighboring atoms and there is no clear cut bound-
ary between the electrons associated with one
atom and another. Therefore the atomic radii will
vary somewhat from compound to compound and
the absolute values depend on the method of cal-
culation. However, if most of the parameters are
assumed constant and the difference in lattice pa-
rameters in the rare earth crystalline series is at-
tributed to the rare earth ion or atom, then the
lanthanide contraction becomes clearly evident. Al-
though scandium and yttrium are not members of
this series, the information is usually wanted at the
same time and is given for completeness. The
atomic radii of the trivalent ion and the metal
atom are given in the accompanying table. See
PERIODIC TABLE RARE EARTH ELEMENTS [3 HSP]

Lanthanum

Element number 57, lanthanum (La) is a metallic
element that is the second most abundant of the
rare earth group. Its atomic weight is 138.92 and
the naturally occurring element is made up of the

stable isotopes La^{139} 0.089% and La^{138} 99.91%.
It was discovered in 1839 by C. C. Mosander. It oc-
curs associated with other rare earths in monazite,
bastnaesite, and other minerals. It is one of the
radioactive products of the fission of uranium,
thorium, or plutonium. It is the most basic of the
rare earths and can be separated rapidly from
other members of the rare earth series by frac-
tional crystallization. Considerable quantities of it
are separated commercially since it is an important
ingredient in glass manufacture. Lanthanum im-
parts a high refractive index to the glasses and it
is used in the manufacture of expensive lenses. The
metal is readily attacked in air and is rapidly
converted to a white powder. For other properties
of the metal, see RARE EARTH ELEMENTS.

Lanthanum becomes a superconductor below
5 K in both crystallization modification hexag-
onal or face centered cubic [R H]

Laplace's differential equation

Laplace's equation in two independent variables x
and y is

$$\frac{\partial^2 u(x, y)}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u(x, y)}{\partial y^2} = 0$$

and is of central importance in both pure math-
ematics and mathematical physics. A function
 $u(x, y)$ having continuous first and second partial
derivatives and satisfying Laplace's equation in a
neighborhood of a point is called harmonic at that
point. If a plane piece of tin foil has its edge kept
at a temperature which varies from point to point
but does not change with time, and if the flow of
heat in the tin foil is steady (that is, independent of
the time), the temperature $u(x, y)$ at interior point
of the foil is harmonic. Likewise, Laplace's equa-
tion dominates the flow of electricity (the potential
is similarly harmonic) and the flow of any incompressible fluid.

Two dimensional relations. If $f(z) = u(x, y) + iv(x, y)$ is an analytic function, $u(x, y)$ and $v(x, y)$ are conjugate functions and are harmonic (see COMPLEX NUMBERS AND COMPLEX VARIABLES). Conversely, if $u(x, y)$ is harmonic in a simply connected region D , one may set

$$v(x, y) = \int_C \left(-\frac{\partial u}{\partial y} dx + \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} dy \right)$$

where (x, y) is fixed in D and (x, y) arbitrary in D . It follows from Green's theorem that the integral over a path in D is independent of the path, so $v(x, y)$ is uniquely defined throughout D . The function $u(x, y)$ and $v(x, y)$ are conjugate in D and $f(z) = u + iv$ is analytic there. Under the condition, let C now be a regular Jordan curve in D . If n denotes the interior normal of C , the equation $\partial u / \partial n = -\partial v / \partial s$ follows from the Cauchy-Riemann equation when e

$$\int_C \frac{\partial v}{\partial s} ds = - \int_C \frac{\partial u}{\partial s} ds = -v(x, y) \Big|_C = 0$$

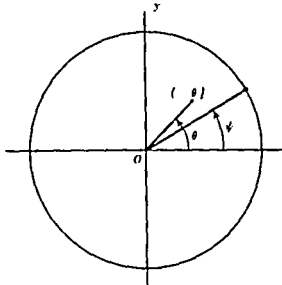
The first of the members of the series is the flux theorem, namely that the total flux (1) at distance r from a point source is zero. If $\phi(r)$ is harmonic in the region R bounded by the surface S and $f(\theta)$ the corresponding angular function, we take the radial part of both members of the equation $\Delta \phi = 0$ and integrate by parts to get

$$-\frac{1}{r} \frac{d}{dr} (r \phi) = -\frac{1}{r} \frac{d}{dr} (r \phi) \quad d = r(-\phi) \frac{d}{dr}$$

$$f(\theta) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} f(\theta) d\theta = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} f(\theta) d\theta$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} f(\theta) d\theta$$

$$f(\theta) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} f(\theta) d\theta$$



Circle in the xy -plane

The first of the members of the series is the flux theorem, namely that the total flux (1) at distance r from a point source is zero. If $\phi(r)$ is harmonic in the region R bounded by the surface S and $f(\theta)$ the corresponding angular function, we take the radial part of both members of the equation $\Delta \phi = 0$ and integrate by parts to get

If D is bounded by B and if ϕ is harmonic in D and continuous on \bar{D} , then the Dirichlet problem for D is solvable if and only if ϕ is harmonic in D and continuous on \bar{D} . If D is a domain in \mathbb{R}^n and ϕ is harmonic in D and continuous on \bar{D} , then the Dirichlet problem for D is solvable if and only if ϕ is harmonic in D and continuous on \bar{D} . If D is a domain in \mathbb{R}^n and ϕ is harmonic in D and continuous on \bar{D} , then the Dirichlet problem for D is solvable if and only if ϕ is harmonic in D and continuous on \bar{D} .

$$f(\theta) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{(1-r^2)U(\psi)d\psi}{(1-r^2)U(\psi)d\psi + (1-r^2)U(\psi)d\psi}$$

The polar coordinates (r, θ) with pole at the origin and θ measured from the positive x -axis are used. If D is a domain in the plane, then the Dirichlet problem for D is solvable if and only if ϕ is harmonic in D and continuous on \bar{D} .

$$f(\theta) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} U(\xi\eta) \frac{\partial g}{\partial \xi} d\xi d\eta$$

The first of the members of the series is the flux theorem, namely that the total flux (1) at distance r from a point source is zero.

The first of the members of the series is the flux theorem, namely that the total flux (1) at distance r from a point source is zero. If $\phi(r)$ is harmonic in the region R bounded by the surface S and $f(\theta)$ the corresponding angular function, we take the radial part of both members of the equation $\Delta \phi = 0$ and integrate by parts to get

Number series expansion (for multiple Fourier series) can be used for the solution of the Dirichlet problem for a region in n -dimensional space. The following remarks apply to Laplace's equation in two dimensions. The following remarks apply to Laplace's equation in two dimensions. The following remarks apply to Laplace's equation in two dimensions. The following remarks apply to Laplace's equation in two dimensions.

$u(x, y) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{(1-r^2)U(\psi)d\psi}{(1-r^2)U(\psi)d\psi + (1-r^2)U(\psi)d\psi}$ which is harmonic except in the point (x, y) . For a point (x, y) in the domain D , the function $u(x, y)$ is harmonic in D and continuous on \bar{D} . If D is a domain in \mathbb{R}^n and ϕ is harmonic in D and continuous on \bar{D} , then the Dirichlet problem for D is solvable if and only if ϕ is harmonic in D and continuous on \bar{D} .

Bibliography: O. D. Kellogg, *Foundations of the Theory of Potential*, 1929.

Laplace's irrotational motion

Laplace's equation for the velocity potential ϕ in a domain D is $\Delta \phi = 0$. The boundary conditions are $\phi = 0$ on ∂D and $\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial n} = 0$ on ∂D .

$$\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial z} = 0$$

The Cartesian coordinates (x, y, z) are used. The boundary conditions are $\phi = 0$ on ∂D and $\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial n} = 0$ on ∂D .

$$\phi = \phi(x, y, z)$$

The velocity potential ϕ is a function of the three rectangular coordinates x, y, z . The boundary conditions are $\phi = 0$ on ∂D and $\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial n} = 0$ on ∂D .

| Element | Radius (Å) | Crystal structure | Atomic weight | Atomic number |
|---------|------------|-------------------|---------------|---------------|
| Sc | | hcp | 44.956 | 21 |
| Y | | hcp | 88.906 | 39 |
| La | 1.061 | hcp | 138.905 | 57 |
| Ce | 1.031 | fcc | 140.12 | 58 |
| Pr | 1.013 | fcc | 140.908 | 59 |
| Nd | 0.99 | hcp | 144.24 | 60 |
| Sm | 0.99 | hcp | 150.36 | 62 |
| Eu | 0.964 | hcp | 151.964 | 63 |
| Gd | 0.90 | hcp | 157.25 | 64 |
| Tb | 0.918 | hcp | 158.925 | 65 |
| Dy | 0.91 | hcp | 162.50 | 66 |
| Ho | 0.908 | hcp | 164.930 | 67 |
| Er | 0.894 | hcp | 167.26 | 68 |
| Tm | 0.881 | hcp | 168.933 | 69 |
| Yb | 0.869 | hcp | 173.054 | 70 |
| Lu | 0.86 | hcp | 174.967 | 71 |

| | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|-----|------|----|----|----|-----|------|----|----|----|---|----|----|
| D | ta f | D | H | T | 1 | 1 | C | 1 | H | D | ul | n |
| J | Am | Cf | So | 6 | 37 | 1 | 39 | 19 | 4 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| B | ta f | m | F | H | Sp | 11 | 9 | 3 | 19 | 6 | 1 | 1 |
| H | m | nn | 1 | 1 | Cry | 9(7) | 9 | 3 | 19 | 6 | 1 | 1 |
| lo | i | k | 1 | fe | f | nt | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| lo | ly | t | 1 | c | l | | | | | | | |
| D | ta f | m | k | W | H | 1 | m | n | D | t | al | th |
| 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 4 | Data | f | m | k | W | H | 1 | n | D | t | al | th |
| two | n | 1 | ye | | | | | | | | | |

stable isotopes La ¹³⁸ 0089 and La ¹³⁹ 9991 occur associated with other rare earths in monazite bastnaesite and other mineral. It is one of the radioactive products of the fission of uranium thorium or plutonium. It is the most basic of the rare earths and can be separated rapidly from other members of the rare earth series by fractional crystallization. Considerable quantities of it are separated commercially since it is an important ingredient in glass manufacture. Lanthanum is used in the manufacture of expensive metal alloys and is readily attacked in air and is rapidly converted to a white powder. For other properties of the metal see RARE EARTH ELEMENTS. Lanthanum becomes a superconductor below 5 K in both crystallization modification hexagonal or face centered cubic [FHSF]

Laplace's differential equation

Laplace's equation in two independent variables x and y is

$$\frac{\partial^2 u(x,y)}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u(x,y)}{\partial y^2} = 0$$

and is of central importance in both pure mathematics and mathematical physics. A function $u(x,y)$ having continuous first and second partial derivatives and satisfying Laplace's equation in a neighborhood of a point is called harmonic at that point. If a plane piece of tin foil has its edge kept at a temperature which varies from point to point but does not change with time and if the flow of heat in the tin foil is steady (that is, independent of the time), the temperature $u(x,y)$ at interior points of the foil is harmonic. Likewise, Laplace's equation describes the flow of electricity (the potential is similarly harmonic) and the flow of any incompressible fluid.

Two dimensional relations If $f(z) = u(x,y) + iv(x,y)$ is an analytic function $u(x,y)$ and $v(x,y)$ are conjugate functions and are harmonic (see COMPLEX NUMBERS AND COMPLEX VARIABLES). Conversely, if $u(x,y)$ is harmonic in a simply connected region D , one may set

$$v(x,y) = \int_C \left(-\frac{\partial u}{\partial y} dx + \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} dy \right)$$

where (x,y) is fixed in D and (x,y) arbitrary in D . It follows from Green's theorem that the integral over a path in D is independent of the path, so $v(x,y)$ is uniquely defined throughout D . The functions $u(x,y)$ and $v(x,y)$ are conjugate in D and $f(z) = u + iv$ is analytic there. Under the condition let C be a regular Jordan curve in D . If u is harmonic in the interior R of C , the potential $\partial u / \partial n = -\partial v / \partial s$ follows from the Cauchy-Riemann equations when e

$$\int_C \frac{\partial u}{\partial n} ds = - \int_C \frac{\partial v}{\partial s} ds = -v(x,y) \Big|_C = 0$$

neighboring atoms and there is no clear cut boundary between the electrons associated with one atom and another. Therefore the atomic radii will vary somewhat from compound to compound and the absolute values depend on the method of calculation. However, if most of the parameters are assumed constant and the difference in lattice parameters in the rare earth crystalline series is attributed to the rare earth ion or atom, then the lanthanide contraction becomes clearly evident. Although scandium and yttrium are not members of this series, the information is usually wanted at the same time and is given for completeness. The atomic radii of the trivalent ion and the metal atoms are given in the accompanying table. See PERIODIC TABLE RARE EARTH ELEMENTS [FHSF]

Lanthanum

Element number 57 lanthanum La is a metallic element that is the second most abundant of the rare earth group. Its atomic weight is 138.92 and the naturally occurring element is made up of the

Let $\phi(t)$ be the generating function $f(s)$.
The expected value of the number of successes in n trials is $nf(s)$.
The variance of the number of successes in n trials is $nf(s)(1-f(s))$.
The probability of k successes in n trials is $\binom{n}{k} f(s)^k (1-f(s))^{n-k}$.

$$\phi(s) = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t) e^{st} dt \quad 0 < t < \infty \quad (1)$$

If the integrand is a function of t only, the integral (1) can be evaluated by the residue theorem. The integral (1) can be evaluated by the residue theorem.

$$\phi(s) = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{(-1)^k}{k!} f^{(k)}(s) \quad 0 < t < \infty \quad (2)$$

Here $f^{(k)}(s)$ is the k th derivative of $f(s)$.
Equation (2) is the integral representation of the Laplace transform of $f(s)$.
The integral (2) can be evaluated by the residue theorem.

$$\phi(s) = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 - \frac{at}{k}\right)^{-k-1}$$

Similar result is obtained.

Generalization: Certain properties of the Laplace transform.

$$f(s) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-st} \phi(t) dt \quad (3)$$

Let the function $\phi(t)$ be the Laplace transform of $f(s)$.
The integral (3) can be evaluated by the residue theorem.
The integral (3) can be evaluated by the residue theorem.

$$g(y) = f(y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-st} \phi(t) dt$$

This equation defines $g(y)$ as the Laplace transform of $\phi(t)$.
The integral (4) can be evaluated by the residue theorem.
The integral (4) can be evaluated by the residue theorem.

$$\phi(s) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t) e^{st} dt = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(y) dy$$

The integral (5) can be evaluated by the residue theorem.
The integral (5) can be evaluated by the residue theorem.

$$f(s) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-st} \phi(t) dt \quad (7)$$

When the integrand is a function of t only, the integral (7) can be evaluated by the residue theorem.
The integral (7) can be evaluated by the residue theorem.

$$f(s) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k}{k!} f^{(k)}(s)$$

The integral (8) can be evaluated by the residue theorem.
The integral (8) can be evaluated by the residue theorem.

If $f(s) = s$ is the corresponding generating function, then $\phi(t) = t$.
The integral (9) can be evaluated by the residue theorem.
The integral (9) can be evaluated by the residue theorem.

$$\sigma = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \log(\alpha(n))$$

The integral (10) can be evaluated by the residue theorem.
The integral (10) can be evaluated by the residue theorem.

The integral (11) can be evaluated by the residue theorem.
The integral (11) can be evaluated by the residue theorem.

$$f(s) \geq 0 \quad f(s) \leq 0 \quad f(s) \geq 0 \quad f(s) \leq 0 \quad (s < \infty)$$

The integral (12) can be evaluated by the residue theorem.
The integral (12) can be evaluated by the residue theorem.

The integral (13) can be evaluated by the residue theorem.
The integral (13) can be evaluated by the residue theorem.

Laplacian

The Laplacian is a differential operator defined as $\nabla^2 = \nabla \cdot \nabla$.
The Laplacian is a differential operator defined as $\nabla^2 = \nabla \cdot \nabla$.

$$S/\partial + \partial S/\partial y + \partial S/\partial z = \nabla \cdot (\nabla S)$$

The Laplace operator is defined as $\nabla^2 = \nabla \cdot \nabla$.
The Laplace operator is defined as $\nabla^2 = \nabla \cdot \nabla$.

Irrotational motion implies that the fluid particles translate without rotation (like the cars on a ferris wheel) and is stated mathematically by saying $\text{curl } \mathbf{v} = 0$ where $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v}(\mathbf{r}, t)$ is the velocity vector \mathbf{r} is the position vector of a particular point in the fluid flow and t is the time. If the fluid motion is at any time irrotational it will stay irrotational (see KELVIN'S CIRCULATION THEOREM). Thus any motion starting from rest will be irrotational. If $\text{curl } \mathbf{v} = 0$ then \mathbf{v} may be written as $\text{grad } \phi$ because $\text{curl } (\text{grad } \phi)$ is identically zero. For an incompressible fluid the continuity equation (see FLUID FLOW PRINCIPLES) is $\text{div } \mathbf{v} = 0$ hence combining this relation with irrotationality gives Laplace's equation $\text{div } (\text{grad } \phi) = 0$.

The velocity field $\mathbf{v}(\mathbf{r}, t)$ in a certain region is determined by Laplace's equation with a boundary condition given on the entire surface surrounding the region. The two most common boundary conditions are those at a solid surface and at a free surface. At a solid surface the fluid velocity normal to the surface must match the velocity of the surface normal to itself $\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{n} = v_n$ that is $\partial \phi / \partial n = v_n$ is given on the boundary. At a free surface such as one occurring between two fluids of different density the pressure must be continuous; this boundary condition in general involves the use of the nonstationary Bernoulli equation and usually leads to wave motion. See BERNOULLI'S THEOREM. WAVE MOTION IN FLUIDS [A. E. BR.]

Laplace transform

An integral transform extensively used by P. S. Laplace in the theory of probability. In simplest form it is

$$f(s) = \int_0^\infty e^{-st} \phi(t) dt \quad (1)$$

It is thought of as transforming the determining function $\phi(t)$ into the generating function $f(s)$. The variable t is real; the variable s may be real or complex $s = \sigma + i\tau$. As an example if $\phi(t) = 1$ the integral converges for $\sigma > 0$ diverges for $\sigma \leq 0$ and $f(s) = 1/s$.

The Laplace transform is used for the solution of differential and difference equations for the evaluation of definite integrals and in many branches of abstract mathematics (functional analysis, operational calculus and analytic number theory).

Method. Extensive table of Laplace transforms exist and the are used as any table of integrals. To illustrate how a differential equation may be solved to extract from such a table can be used

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{A } f(s) = 1/(s-a) & \phi(t) = e^{at} \\ \text{B } f(s) = 1/(s^2+1) & \phi(t) = \sin t \end{array}$$

Suppose it is required to find a solution $y(t)$ of

$$y''(t) + y(t) = 2e^t \quad \left(y = \frac{d^2 y}{dt^2}, y' = \frac{dy}{dt} \right) \quad (2)$$

such that $y(0) = 1$ $y'(0) = 2$. Denote the Laplace transform of the unknown function $y(t)$ by $Y(s)$. Integration by parts gives

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^\infty e^{-st} y''(t) dt &= -y'(0) - y(0)s + s \int_0^\infty e^{-st} y(t) dt \\ &= -2 - s + s^2 Y(s) \end{aligned}$$

on the assumption that the integrated part is zero at $t = \infty$. Applying the Laplace transform to Eq. (2) and using A for the right hand side one obtains

$$-2 - s + s^2 Y(s) + Y(s) = \frac{2}{s-1}$$

The differential equation has become an algebraic one whose solution is

$$Y(s) = \frac{1}{s-1} + \frac{1}{s^2+1} \quad (3)$$

However a further use of the table shows that the Laplace transform of $y(t) = e^t + \sin t$ is precisely the right hand side of Eq. (3). Assuming uniqueness one has thus obtained the required solution. Because its properties can be checked directly the unproved assumptions need not be verified.

This example illustrates the general method. The unknown function is taken as the determining function and the Laplace transform is applied to the differential (or difference) equation. There results an equation with the generating function as an unknown and this must be solved. Finally the determining function must be determined from the generating function either from a table or by use of an inversion formula. In general if the original differential equation is partial in any number of independent variables one application of the Laplace transform reduces the number of the variables by one. If the equation was ordinary (one independent variable) the transformed equation is algebraic as in the above example.

Properties. Here are the fundamental properties of the Laplace transform

- I There exists a number σ (perhaps $+\infty$ or $-\infty$) called the abscissa of convergence such that the integral in Eq. (1) converges for $\sigma > \sigma_0$ diverges for $\sigma < \sigma_0$. That is, the region of convergence is a half plane (a half line if s is real).
- II The generating function is holomorphic for $\sigma > \sigma_0$.
- III The determining function is uniquely determined by the generating function (Ambiguity is possible only on set of measure zero).
- IV The product of two generating functions is in general a generating function. Thus if Eq. (1) holds for two pairs of functions $f_1(s)$, $\phi_1(t)$ and $f_2(s)$, $\phi_2(t)$ then the product $f_1(s)f_2(s)$ is the transform of the convolution

$$\phi_1(t) \phi_2(t) = \int_0^t \phi_1(u) \phi_2(t-u) du$$

As was evident in the above example it is very important to be able to derive the determining



The d w l k St H m a l g h t l l i
From E L P l m F l d b k f N t of H d r y
McG H 11 1949)

mt th United St tes m n y t m e d n a t r o d
d u n r v e d L o g l l a d f m r e t h a 70
y e a A t p t h l y k n w o l n y f k y
l k m N r t h A m t i s n v n I l n d
B t h C o l m b

Horned lark Thi b d E m p h l a t p e t r i s o f
th family Alauda s i r e p e n t e d l y u m o
b s p e c s i t h p e h p t h w d t n t u r a l r n g e
o f y s o g b i r d b n g f u d i E u p A
N r t h A f r i c a n d S o t h A m e s w e l l t
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c o l o r e d b d t h p a r f m l l b l k e a t f t
T h e f h d h e e k t r p a d b d t l i r a t
a r e l s o b l k T h e t h r o t a e f m w h t t
y l l w T h u t t l f e a t h a r e b l a k t h b e t
f i l d m a r k f l i g h t T h e h d l a k i a b d f
t h e f e t r y d p p e n t l y e q m e
h a r g d t t h D g t h m t g e a s o n
t h m a l f q u i l y n g g e m e m k b l e r t i
c a l f l i g h t a g n a a t e l m b a n d t e m i t g i a
b r e a t h t k g d e t p u l l p n r u f f l e d l o d o
o c k b f o t s m t e H e d l r k g a t e t
l g f l o c k d r i n g t h w t S e P A S S R I F O R I E S
R o b i [J D B]

Larmor precession

A p r e s s i o n i f t h e m t o f c h a r g e d p a r t l e i
a m g n e t i c f i e l d (P R E C E S S i o) T h e L a m
t h e o m (L a m 1897) t t t h a t f l i t n
m a g n e t i c t r i f i d f i r t h m o t o
i n a f r o m m a g n e t i c f i e l d H t f i t r d i H
t h a m a p o s i b l e m t n s t h a b e i f H
p t f t h e p e p o t i f m m p e s
o f g l r f q n y

$$\omega = -H/2m \quad (1)$$

h e e / c t h e m a g n e t d e i t h l t n h a g e
l t m g n t u i d m t h e l t i c
m T h e f q u y w z a l l d t h L a r m f

q n y a d i n n r i c a l l y e q u a l t t i m 1 10
M e p r e r e d

T h e L a r m r t h e o r m i d r i v e d i n n u m r o i
t e x t F r i t l e p r e c l e a f a n e l e c t n m o v i g i n
c i r l a r l t f r a d i u s a l i t a f i x e d n u c l i
w i t h H p i l l e d n r m l t t h e p l a n e f t h o r b i t
t h e d r i s t i f l l w t l c t r i g t a l f r
h l d i g t l e c t r n i n t h i t m i t j l n o r a l
i t h e m f t h C o l m l f r e e Z / a n d t h
L o r n t z f o r c e - (c) w H T l r e f r

$$\omega = \pm [(H/\mu m)^2 + (Ze^2/mr^3)]^{1/2} - (H/\mu m) \\ = \pm (\omega_L^2 + \omega_c^2)^{1/2} + \omega_L \quad (2)$$

w h e n o i t n g u l a r f r e q u e n c y i n t h e a l e n c e o f
H H o n o o o o L (h o u n) e l e c t r o n a n d f r t r l r i n
H) t h a p p r o x i m a t e g l a r f r e q u e n c y

$$\omega = \pm \omega_0 + \omega_L \quad (3)$$

w h i l e t h L a r m r t h e o r m F a f r e e r i n
l u d e l e c t (n C o l m l f o r) i t a p p r o x i
m t n l a k d w n l t d r e c t s o l u t i o n f t h e
e q u a t i o n l i n g m o r a d t h l r e i z f r e
l d o o = - H m c T h i t w e e t h L a r m r f r e
q u e n c y n d i c a l l e d t h e y l t r n f r e q u e n c y S

L A R N I T E A C T I V A T O R
I t i t g i t L a r m r t h e o r m u w a m a d e f
t h p l a a p o l l e m t i I f H i a p p l i e d
f f n t l y l w y i t a n b e j e d t h a t t h e m t i n
i t l m e a i n t h a l n e I H e x c e p t f r t h e
t j p u t i n f t h L a r m r p r e c e s s I f w e x e r
d d n p p l t i n f H m v h a g f e x a m
p l l a r l t i n t n e l l p u c l i n

F r a i m p o r t a n t a p p l i c a t i o n f t h L a r m r
t h e o r m s D I A M A G E T I c I s F I E C T R O
I O T E N I N V A C U U M [E A F K]
B b l g a p h y G J o o T h o t l i t h y s i s 3 d
d 1958

Larnite

A r a r n e c l a t m n r a l w i t h m p o t i C a z
S i O w h i h w r g a l l y d e c r i e d i n 1979 f m
S a w t H i l l C t y A n t r m I r l n d W e l l f r m e d
t l b t l n l r v e d l u t l e p r n e o f
t w m u t u l l y r e p d i c u l a l a g e s w i t h p o l y
n t h t i t w n g p r l l e t n o f t h m n d e t e
m n l s y m m t r y T h r e e a r t i f l e a l m j
t s f t h i s a m e c m p t i n a r d e s g a t e d a
a b n d y L a r t p r o b b l y r e p o d t o C a z
S O T n f r m a t n t t h e y p h a m a y l e p o
d u d b y h e a t i n g b y h o c k A t S c a t H i l l l a r n t e
i t i m t e l y a a t e d w i t h p u r i t m e l l i e
m w t d p l i a l m t o n t a t z e
l t h a l b e d c r b d f r m C r e t i m e n a r
R r d C a l f a s S I L I C A T E M I E R A L S

[C S H U]

Larvacea

A l a s f t h e u b p h y l m T u n a t a c o n t i n g o f
m n t p l a k t o c n m l w h h t h e t a l w i t h
d r a l n r v o d a d n t o c h o r d p r s t t h r u g h
l i f e T w g i l l i t r o m m l y p r e e n t b u t
n t m l a c k n g T h e p d m o f t h e t e i o r
r g e c t s g e l a t u t u n w h c h i m

Lapping

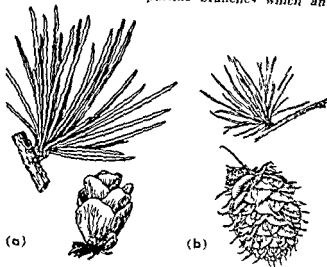
A precision abrading process used to bring a surface to a desired state of refinement or dimensional tolerance by removal of an extremely small amount of material. Lapping is accomplished by abrading a surface with a fine abrasive grit rubbed about it in a random manner. Usually less than 0.0005 in of stock is removed.

A loose unbonded grit is used. It is traversed about with a mating piece or lap of a somewhat softer material than the workpiece. The unbonded grit is mixed with a vehicle such as oil, grease, or soap and water compound. When a bonded grit is used, it may be in the form of a bonded abrasive lap or a charged lap such as cast iron or copper with the lapping compound embedded in it. In some cases abrasive covered paper laps are used.

Although some lapping is done by hand, most production work is done on a lapping machine. Various types of machines are designed for work on flat, cylindrical and spherical surfaces. See GRINDING MACHINING OPERATIONS [A T]

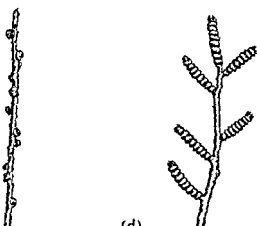
Larch

A genus *Larix* of the pine family with deciduous needles and short spurlike branches which an-



(a)

(b)



(c)

(d)

(a) Tamarack *Larix laricina* (USDA) (b) Western larch *Larix laricina* (USDA) (c) European larch *Larix decidua* (d) Golden larch *Pseudolarix amabilis* (A. H. G. as illustrated by G. de Trease & D. Shubert, 1956)

nally bear a crown of needles. The cones are monoic and persistent, varying by species in size, number, and form of the cone scales. The tamarack *Larix laricina*, also called hackmatack, is a native species with erect, narrowly pyramidal habit and grows in wet and moist soil in the northeastern United States west to the Lake states and across Canada to Alaska. The cones are 14-24 in. long. The tough, resinous wood is durable in contact with the soil and is used for railroad ties, posts, sill, and boats. Other uses include the manufacture of excellent cabinet work, interior finishing, and utility poles.

The western larch *L. occidentalis*, the most important and largest of all the species, grows in the northwestern United States and southern British Columbia. The cones of this species are larger, 1-1.5 in. long, with bracts growing out beyond the cone scales. The trunk is tall and erect, sometimes attaining a height of 200 ft and a diameter of 6 ft. The western larch has an estimated stand of 20,000,000,000-30,000,000,000 board ft mostly in the national forests. The annual production of the lumber usually ranges from 200,000,000 to 300,000,000 board ft. More than one half of the production comes from Montana; the remainder from Idaho, Washington, and Oregon.

The European larch *L. decidua* has cones about twice the size of those of the tamarack and 40-50 scales to a cone, whereas tamarack has only 12-15. The European larch does better in drier soil and is the species usually planted in parks and private grounds.

Golden larch *Pseudolarix amabilis* from China is occasionally cultivated. Its leaves are deciduous, are golden yellow in the fall. The cone scales fall off one by one, leaving the central axis of the cone on the tree. See FOREST AND FORESTRY TREE. [A H C]

Lark

Any of a group of birds, the best known are the meadowlark, the skylark, and the horned lark.

Meadowlark. This is either of two species of American bird of the genus *Sturnella* family Icteridae. The meadowlark is larger than a robin, stoutly built, brown streaked above with a bright yellow breast crossed by a black bib. The outer tail feathers are white and are prominent in flight. Darker than the western meadowlark *S. neglecta*, the eastern meadowlark *S. magna* is more commonly distinguished by song than by color. The song of the western species is distinctly different and more melodious than that of the eastern species. The range of the two species broadly overlap in the Mississippi Valley.

Skylark. A European songbird *Alauda arvensis* of the family Alaudidae, famous for its parking aerial song. The skylark is a dull bird with little not prominently marked, but readily distinguished from the horned lark by the presence of white outer tail feathers. Like other larks it is a bird of the open barren ground and is terrestrial in its habits. The natural range of the skylark includes most of Europe and North Africa. It has been introduced

Latent image

an im ble imag produced by a ph y : for ch m al effect f light on the di id lery tal (u u ally l shal d) f phot g aph emul ion Thi m ge nber n d e r e d v ble by the proce kn w a d vel pment Fo detail f lat nt image f rma u a d d elopme t s e PHOTOGRAPHY PHOTOLYSIS (PHOTOCHEMISTRY) [K W R]

Latente

Th am g e by F B h nan (180) to the ir n rich th ring produ t of l alt in s thern In dia. The t r m t ow u e d a e m p ti nal sense f the ng prod t e mpo ed pr cip lly fth o des a dhydrous o ides of r n al m n m ita m d m ang e s Ir n r h r f r r g i l n t e r l g l y h m a t t e Fe O and goit t HFeO- d may be an re f iron a d ckel (Cub New Caled a) Alums u late ite is com posed f gbb te d boehm t a d i th pr i pal re of lum n m (s e BALXIF) Cl v m n al f the k of n gr p are typ lly a sociated with a d r g t ally r l t e d to l t e te Lat it ang from soft, earthy porous mat i l t h s d dense rock Concret ry forms f ryi g ze d h ge c m u ly are dev l p e d T l t r de pond on the o tent f t n x d e ad ra g from b i e t d r k e d r b w e m m l a t e g e r S CLAY MINERALS KAOLINITE WEATHER ING PROCESSES

Origin Lat rite i f r m d by w a t h e r n g u d r co d i t h t l a d t the em l f l i a l k a l e s , d a l k l e e r t h Th r e s l i n g t r u o f a d l m u m o d e s h p l d f f e t a t l t e z a t from t m p r a t e l m a t e w e a t h e r s w h c h t h e d p r o d c t i a g e l l y m u n r a l t h d r o l u m m s l c t e s) F r l y w k r f o m t m p e a t e r g o c n d d i f t e i a t n a s p r f n i l l a c h g (d e s l t) n s t a g b y o d r d r y k a o l z a t n t u d e s : t r p l g r o n s h o w e v h w t h w a t e r n i g o f a l k l e l c t m y y l d g b b s t d e c t l y w i t h t p g t h o g h n t r m e d t l y t a g l o e v a g a t i n m a n y p a t f t h e w l d t r e n a r g e t f t A t p c a l t b i o p l l i m a t e w h h g h t e m p a t u d b n d a n t a f l l e e c o a l a l l a t w i t h p d f m k d d r y e s f d a m t l R e l f f i c i e n t o n u g o d d r a g t e q t l t t l s a p m b l n d d t d b y h t w a h l k l y o r t a l e . A l m u l t i t f m b t h w t a b l e a d m a y g d e t l y d p t h I t m v b e f o d n h l l d w l l d d l p b t t h d u l d p o s t s d j e t a l l e y l l y k l u n

Parent materials Th p r n t m t l t o l g r t l y s e n t h e m p t n f l t e w h h m a b e d e v l p e d f r m r i t y f s g n u m e t a m p h e d e d m t r y r k l h k (p d u t) l d l m n r k f t (p o d b a u t w h s d e t e b l i g r m e d a t p o d t C o m m o l y t e x

tural d r u t u r a l f t e f i l e p a r e t m a t r i l a r e p r e s r v d a n d t l m r e r e i t n t m a l l e m r l r e m a n
Mat r e l t r i t u m a l l e c k f r t u l t y f r m t a v t m f a g r a t u r e S a n a r p a r k l e g r l a n d a r t y p i c a l n l a t e r i t C l a y n t l i t i t s f i n d b e n e a t h r n f r e t a n d j u n g l v e g t a t n S e V E G E T A T I O N z c v r [c]
B i b l g a p h y S e B A L X I F

Lathe

A machine f r the r m l f m t a l f r m a w r k p a l y g r i p p i n g i t s e c u r e l y i n a l o l d i n g d e v a d r t i n g i t u n d r p o w r a g a i n t a s t a l l c u t t i g t o o l T h e t o o l m y b e m e d r a t i a l l y r l g u d n l l y a n r e j e c t t h e t u r n i n g a f t h w r k p i e t h e r m a u a l l y l a t t a h e d p o w r f r m i c l a s n p l r e s a l r l a t e l n t r e h p e d w k p e c e s a w e l l a t r a l d r a n b e t u r n e d n a l t h M a i n i n g p a t s h a s i n g l i g a n d t h r a d n g w h i h r e v a t n o f t h e t u r n i n g p r o c e a n a l l e p e r f i m e d n a l t h

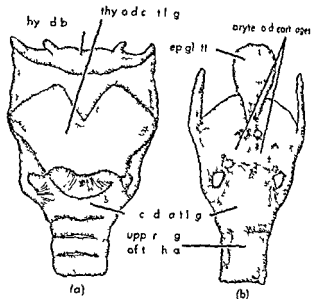
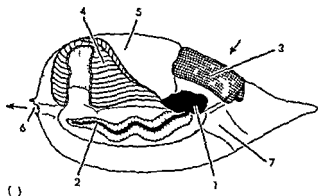
Turn g r i p p i n g m a y b e c l a e d a b o n g e t h e r f t h h r i z t a l r r t a l t y p e r e f r i n g t i l t u r n i g a x i s t h e w r k p e e i n t h m a h T l l a e n g i n e l a t h i p m r l y a m n a l l y p e r t e d m a h F i l l g t h g p b e t e e t n g i n l a t h e a d f l l y a t m a t i c t u n n g e q u i p m t i t h t u r t l a t h F a t t a n d l t t e d t h g l q n t y p r o d u t i n i t h a u t m t c r e w m a h

Engine lathe The t i l e e n g i e l a t h e r n g e i s i n d e s i g n f r m m a l l b e c h a n d p e e d l t h e t l g e f l o o r t p T h e w k p e e m y b e h e l d b e t w e e n t a p e r e d e n t s a l r l a t e d w i t h t h e p w e p i d l e l y m e f a c l a m p i g d e s i r i t m a b e h l d i a h c k e n f i x e d t o a r t t i n g p l t e W h n t h w r k w u g b e t e c e n t e t h t a i l t o c k w h h l l t h e t a t i n r y t a p r e d t e r i l m p e d f i r m l i n p l a e L o n g w k p e e s m a y b p p t e d i n t h m d d l e b y e n t h r a t e d y r t m e c h n l l y d r i e f l l w t e t w h i h m s w i t h t h c u t t i g t o o l

The n g l e p o t t o o l h e l d i n a t o o l p t r b l k w h i h u p p e d n a c r l i d e a n d c a r i a g T h t l m a y b m e d r d a l l y o l n g t d i n l l y i n r e l a t n t h e w r k p i e

Angula ut a r p b l a n d l n g t i d i n a l t a p s m y b e t b y o f f e t t n g t h t a i l t o c k o b d j m t o f a t a p r a t t a h m t n t h t a r o f t h e l a t h e w h i h a s t o t h e c l d

Turret lathe Th t l t c k o f t h e n g l a t h b p l a e d w t h m l t d e d d x n g t o o l t l d r i r r e t d e g n e d t h l d e v l t o o l t h m l b m g a t r r t l t h Th s n g l e t o l p t a d m p n d s a l l y r e p l a e d a f o u p t d e s g t o o l p t P w c u t m y b t k e n f m b o t h o f t h t o l m t i g t h r p d d u l l y o r s m u l t a n l y T u r e t l a t h a m a d r t i l m d l w l l h z n t a l H z o n t a l t r e t l t h e c l e d a t h b r r h c k g m h i r f r g t t h m n



Human laryngeal cartilages and ligaments (a) Frontal view (b) Back view (After Sappey from J Symington Quain's Elements of Anatomy vol 2 pt 2 to 6th edn 1914)

(b)

Larvacea (a) A larvacean *Oikopleura dioica* in the house 1 body of animal 2 tail 3 water intake filter 4 food concentration apparatus 5 gelatinous material of house 6 water outlet 7 emergency exit (b) body and anterior tail region of *Oikopleura dioica* 8 Oral aperture 9 pharynx 10 endostyle 11 buccal gland 12 gill slit 13 esophagus 14 lobes of stomach 15 a us 16 dorsal ganglion 17 dorsal nerve cord 18 caudal ganglion 19 gonads 20 a koplast epithelium which secretes the house 21 tail 22 otocyst

posed of polysaccharides bearing amino groups but contains no cellulose. In some species this tunic is highly complex and encases the whole body in a house equipped with chambers and trawls which enables the inhabitant to filter and concentrate the finest of plankton from the sea. About 60 species are known. *Oikopleura* and *Fritillaria* are the largest genera. See TUNICATA [DPA]

Larynx

In man the voice box. The signet shaped cricoid cartilage forms the base which rests on the trachea. The paired thyroid cartilages which form the prominent Adam's apple in front lie above the cricoid. Posteriorly there are paired pivoting cartilages the arytenoids. Each is pyramid shaped and acts as the movable posterior attachment for the vocal cord and the laryngeal muscles that regulate the cord. Two other small paired cartilages the cuneiform and the corniculate also lie behind the thyroids. The lid of the box is the epiglottis a leaf shaped cartilage with its stem inserted into the thyroid notch. See CARTILAGE

The larynx is a derivative of the primitive gill bar system of vertebrate. Its original function is to act as a protective phincter at the air passage a function still retained in lower animals. Only in higher vertebrates has phonation been acquired and is almost limited to mammals since in birds the sound is produced lower in the airway. See SPEECH. See also LARYNX DISORDERS THYROID GLAND [FCST]

Larynx disorders

Diseases of the larynx manifest themselves by hoarseness and by stridor a form of noisy breathing caused by localized narrowing in the larynx or trachea.

Laryngitis is an inflammation of the mucous membrane of the larynx always associated with hoarseness. It frequently occurs with common colds and as a complication of other inflammatory diseases of the upper respiratory system. In diphtheria the formation of a membrane of fibrin leukocytes destroyed tissue and bacteria can cause severe respiratory difficulties which might demand tracheotomy. The development of chronic laryngitis is favored by a chronic irritation such as that caused by smoking.

Hoarseness is also a manifestation of paralysis of the recurrent laryngeal nerve of the vagus (see NERVOUS SYSTEM) which is easily damaged upon surgical removal of a goiter.

Benign tumors of the larynx occur in the younger age group. A tumorlike formation of the vocal cord known as a papilloma often accounts for the hoarseness of people who abuse the voice. Cancer of the larynx is not uncommon in man but is frequently of a slowly growing type and the outlook is often good. The highest incidence is in males over 60. [FWR]

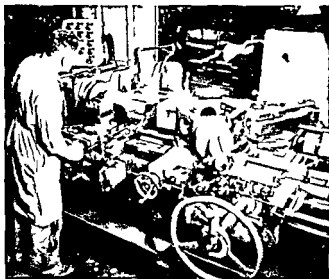


Fig 1 Saddle type turret lathe (Jones and Lamson Mach Co)

in which the workpiece is held. The headstock of the lathe machine is constructed so that bar stock may be slid through it and the collet on line with the turning axis of the lathe. The collet closes holding the piece firmly. Chucking type machines grasp a unit size workpiece in a chuck or jawed device. Chucking devices permit work of relatively large diameters to be machined.

Horizontal machine may be further classed as being either of the ram or saddle type, a designation referring to the manner in which the turret is mounted on the machine. On the ram machine the turret is mounted on a ram or slide which rides on a saddle. When the turret is indexed for successive operation, the saddle acts as a guide for the ram in its strokes to and from the work. On the saddle type machine designed without a ram, the turret mount directly on the saddle which slides on the bedways of the lathe (Fig 1). Ram type lathes with their short turret travel are generally of lighter construction than the saddle type. Excessive overhang of the ram reduces tool rigidity. Fast in operation they perform best on small diameter work and light chucking job. The rigid construction and the longer stroke of the saddle type lathe enable it to handle both longer and heavier bar and chuck work than the ram type machine.

The vertical turret lathe, similar in principle to the horizontal machine, is capable of handling heavier and bulkier workpieces. The vertical machine is constructed with a rotary horizontal work table whose diameter normally designates the capacity of the machine. Machine table range from 30-74 in in diameter. A cross rail mounted above the table carries a turret which indexes in a vertical plane with tools that may be fed either across or downward (Fig 2). The cross rail may also carry a vertical swiveling ram with a non-indexing tool holder which feeds in a manner similar to the turret. Below the cross rail a side head with an indexing tool holder is sometimes provided. The tool may be fed in horizontally or moved vertically.

Tools may be operated simultaneously either manually or by power.

Automatic screw machines When a high production rate of relatively small turned parts is required, automatic screw machines are used. The screw machine was originally developed from the lathe for the purpose of more economical manufacture of screws and bolts. The name has persisted even though numerous partially or completely finished products are produced on them. Generally these machines are classified as single spindle or multiple spindle automatic. The usual machine is of the horizontal type.

The single spindle machine is constructed to feed bar stock through the hollow machine spindle and collet similar to a turret lathe. When the bar meets a stop, the collet closes on the piece. The manner in which the cutting tools are held may vary. Usually a small five or six position turret or drum indexes and feeds tools longitudinally against the end of the rotating workpiece. Turret tools may include drills, reamers, hollow mill, and counter boring tools. At times a single-threading die mounted on line with the spindle is used.

Usually two independent cam actuated cross slides front and rear are provided to hold forming, grooving, or cut off tool. Turret indexing actuation of the collet, feeding of stock and spindle clutch operations are automatic. Machine operations commonly performed include facing, drilling, reaming, forming, and knurling. Special attachments permit such operations as milling, index drilling, or thread chasing to be performed.

Multiple spindle automatics employ several machine spindles arranged in a circular pattern. Each spindle is equipped to hold stock in a manner similar to a single spindle machine. In some instances automatically operating chucks capable of holding irregularly shaped workpieces replace the collet type chucks. Standard machines may have as many as eight rotating spindles. These in turn index in a



Fig 2 Vertical turret lathe (Bullard Company)

am about a n n r t i n g t u r r e t w h i h l d a
 et of utt g tool A a l p u n d l i d e x
 d p r g r e a r d t h e a r r i r e c e i e m
 h i g o p e r a t n a e p e f r m e d l t h t r r t
 o o l s S m u l t a e c l y t o c l l e c t e d m u
 n t u a p e f r m g t h e r e s p e c t i v e p e r a
 i o o t h a w k p e e c e s C l i d e s
 u o u e d a t r i g h t a n g l e s t h i p u n d l a r r y t h e
 r m n g r o o g c t o f f t o o l
 Th t m f t h l g t i t p l i t h l l w a n e
 f r u h p r g a m m g a t i n a i d e i g n d
 l o o l t r e n g e t h t i m e s e q u e l t p r o d i e
 o f i n h e d p e c B y d i d n g l n g e t r i w
 m e p e r a t n s t h e y e l n g t i m m a y l r e
 d u r e d M h i g p e r a t p e r f r m d n t h
 m a h u e e g e r a l l t h m e a t h e d n n
 m p l p d l e a t m a t
 A n i m p l e p u n d l m h e x f t h m
 a u t m a t h i k g t p e e n t r e d w i t h a
 m v a l 6 p d l A h z t a l r a l a t t l e
 h l d i n g t h e r i t g c h u k i d e e i n d t h e e r t
 l p o n d i e s w i t h a d f f r n t p a t n l e n g p
 f r m e d i h i t t n T h m a h e n t r i t e d
 t b d l m u h l a r g e w k p e e c e s t h a h r t a l
 a t o u m m y m o d l t h p e e d f e e d a n d
 d i e c t f r t a t f r e a h p d l m l a t t
 m y b a e d f m p t i t t l e t T h
 p r m e l t n i t h e t f e e d a n d p e d f
 t h p t n b e p r f o m e d t h i t t n S
 M a c h i n e a n a r i o n s { A T }

Lattice

l a t t i c e (t h l y r y t a l l) x k f v l
 g o m p o d h R f d p l a g o c l
 (o l g o c l o s d) y a d l k l f e l d p i a i
 d e r t h o c l e) w i t h s h o r d n a t q n t i
 d k e l e d (m a s i) m a l (b t t m p h o l
 p y r x e) L a t t i m t e l e s i t r m d i t
 b e t w n h y t d a d e t P l g l e d m s
 a t a l k l f l d p a i t n e b t b o d t e
 t a l k l f l d p t a h y t e A d e s n r e l t t l
 o n o a l k a l f l d p a S T R A C H Y T E . { C A C A }

Latitude astronomical

L a t i t u d e d e t e r m i n e d b y t n m a l b e r v t o n
 a s d i o u h e d t r m g p h c l t u t u d w h i h
 t h t h w o m p A t r n m l l a t u d
 d e t e r m i n e d b t h d e f i n i t i o n t h a t t h g l r a l t
 t d f m t h h i a f t h e l e c t l p o l i d n t
 l w i t h t h l t u d f t h o b r v T h e l t u d
 f t h p l e c t d b y l r v g t h m e d n
 h i d f a l e s t i b y t w h o e d l i
 k n o w n T h i d b y m u n g t h a g l b
 t n t h l e f g h t a d h o i z n t l u f
 h h a t a b l h d t h b y t h b l h r i
 l q u d f a r e p u l l i d d l l y
 p e p e d u j i t d t n l g t y T h d
 e c t i g n l a l l y h w e v e t h
 d e i t b g a l l d d f t f t h e t l
 (L o C u l o r A S T R O N O M I C A L) A m p e
 i n d x s u l y f m o c m l b r v t i
 i d b e d i t d b y a f w h d e d f t i t m
 t h n m l S e C E D E Y { C M C }

Lattice (mathematics)

L a t t i c e s a l l w i t h p e r t e s f r i r a n l n
 e l i m l a g r p t l r e t r a t s m t e (s e e
 C R O S E T T E R A) A a g n e l i f B o o l n
 a l l r l t t e e t l y w f r t a p p l e d c l l 0 0
 l y R D o d l i t l g l r e c u m b e r t h r B t
 i t r e m t m j r l a l f m t m a t e s
 i f v a r a p e t f l g l r a g r o m i v l
 f t u n l a r l y a w l l a f t l e s r l m n l
 p r l t i d t y (t w l B o o l n a l e o l r l l a l
 b e r n a p p l e d) l i t e s f t h v r l 1 9 3 1 9 3 8
 B O O L E A N A L F I R A S P T T H E R Y
 T l m o s t l a c r e p t f i t t e t l r v t a t f
 a p a t l l r f a t S f l m n t x y
 B t l m e t l n r l i a n a l l y l n t l
 (r e) w i t h t f l l p p e r t e s
 (P 1) $x \leq x$ f o r a l l $x \in S$
 (P 2) I f $x \leq y$ t h $y \leq x$ t h $x = y$
 (P 3) I f $x \leq y$ t h $y \leq z$ t h $x \leq z$
 I f \leq v p a t i t l n g f S t h n t v r e
 l i g e l f n e d t v t i t n t
 $x \geq y$ i f a n d o n l y f $y \leq x$ (1)
 i l a p a t l r l f S T l i v e r f e d
 f e t r l f n d a m t i d l i t r i n p l w l)
 f u l n m i v e n r e t n
 S u p p o s e f a m p l t h j n x u y f w l
 m l l s f p a r t a l l r l t e d t s l f e d
 b y t h n i t n

$x \leq x y$ t h $y \leq x y$ (1)
 n d f $x < y$ t h $y \leq x$ t h $x u y \leq y$ (2)
 (I t a l y h w t l t t h a t m t n)
 x u y) T h t h d l t p r c p l p p e c t d f n g
 t h m e e t n o v l y
 $x \geq x y$ t h $y \geq x y$ (3)
 a d f $x \geq y$ t h $y \geq z$ t h $x \geq z$ (4)
 n d h t t t l e a t m t n c l n y
 A l t i c e i f i f a p a r t i a l l y n l l s
 w h i n v t l m n t x a n l y h v m e e t x n y
 d a j n u y T h e n l t y p e r a t s i f y f r
 t a d i t e s
 (L 1) $x x = x$
 (L 2) $x y = y x$ a l l $x y y x = x y$
 (L 3) $n (y) = (n y) n$ n l $x u (y u) = (x u) u$
 (L 4) $n (u y) = u (x n y) = x$
 T h p e a t n l u n t e d w i t h t r e l
 $x \leq y$ t h e d t t h a t $x \leq y$ t h $x n y = x$ a l
 $x u = y$ t h i l m t i m t C o n l y
 f L n l l y t m w l p e t o n l u
 t f y (L 1) t (L 4) f a l l x y t h n t
 p e c t l t n d e f \leq a p t l r d t
 o f L w i t h e s p e t t h h n n d u h t h m
 d f i e d a t T l p p l w a s d e d l y C S
 P i (1 8 8 0)

K i n d s o f l a t t i c e s T h a m a x y d i f f m
 k n d s f l t e r T h t h a l m b e s f n l i t
 $f \leq y$ p n t m n g T h s l t
 m p l y d e d i t h t h

(P4) Given x and y either $x \leq y$ or $y \leq x$. Any such simply ordered set (or chain) is a lattice in which $x \cup y$ is simply the larger of x and y and dually.

A chain the set I of positive integers forms a lattice if one lets $m \leq n$ mean m divides n (usually denoted $m|n$). In this case $m \cap n = \gcd(m, n)$ and $m \cup n = \text{lcm}(m, n)$. Still a chain one can let Σ consist of all subsets $S \subseteq T$ of a fixed ensemble I and let $S \leq T$ mean that every point in S is in T . Then Σ is a lattice in which $S \cap T$ is the intersection of S and T whereas $S \cup T$ is their union. Actually Σ is a Boolean algebra.

In all the preceding lattices the distributive law holds.

$$(L6) \quad x \cap (y \cup z) = (x \cap y) \cup (x \cap z) \quad \text{and} \quad x \cup (y \cap z) = (x \cup y) \cap (x \cup z) \quad \text{for all } x, y, z$$

Such lattices are called distributive lattices. Any chain is a distributive lattice, so is any Boolean algebra. More generally, a ring of sets is defined as a family Φ of subsets of a fixed set I which contains with any S and T also their intersection $S \cap T$ and their union $S \cup T$. Then any ring of sets is a distributive lattice.

It is obvious that each of the two identities of (L6) is dual to the other. It is a curious fact that in a lattice each also implies the other.

If G is any group then its subgroups form a lattice and its normal subgroups also form a lattice in both cases under inclusion. The normal subgroups satisfy the (self dual) modular law.

$$(L5) \quad \text{If } x \leq z \text{ then } x \cup (y \cap z) = (x \cup y) \cap z$$

In general lattices satisfying (L5) are called modular and every distributive lattice is modular.

The lattice of all linear subspaces of the n -dimensional vector space $V_n(F)$ over any field (or division ring) F is also a modular lattice, usually called the $(n-1)$ -dimensional projective geometry $P_{n-1}(F)$ over F . This lattice contains special elements 0 (the zero vector) and $I = V_n(F)$ (the whole space) such that

$$(P5) \quad 0 \leq x \leq I \quad \text{for all } x$$

Such special elements always exist in any lattice. No chains all have finite length. But they need not exist in general: for example they do not in the simply ordered set of real numbers.

The lattice $P_{n-1}(F)$ is complemented in the sense that each subspace x has at least one complement x' with the property that

$$(L7) \quad x \cap x' = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad x \cup x' = I$$

Thus $P_{n-1}(F)$ is a complemented modular lattice. Similarly it may be verified that the class of Boolean algebras is precisely the class of complemented distributive lattices. This principle enables one to consider Boolean algebras as a branch of lattice theory.

Lattices L containing few elements can be conveniently visualized by diagrams. In these diagrams small circles represent elements of L and being higher than b whenever $a > b$. A segment is then drawn from a to b whenever $a > b$ but no x exists such

that $a > x > b$. Any such diagram defines L up to isomorphism. $a > b$ if and only if one can travel from a to b along a descending broken line. Figures 1-5 are typical such diagrams.

Such graphs often give useful information very simply. For example, let a finite lattice be called *emodular* if any two elements a and b immediately above (covering) a given element c are also immediately under (covered by) another element $d = a \cup b$. This condition can easily be tested by inspection. Dedekind showed that a finite lattice L was modular if and only if it and its dual were both *emodular*. For L to be distributive the extra condition of containing no subgraph such as that of Figure 2 is necessary and sufficient.



Fig. 1 The ordinal number 4



Fig. 2 The projective line over the field F_2 of 2 integers mod 2



Fig. 3 The simplest nonmodular lattice



Fig. 4 The lattice of divisors of 12 under divisibility



Fig. 5 The Boolean algebra of order 8

Applications to algebra and geometry. Lattices like groups and rings can be defined as abstract algebras that is as systems of elements combined by universally defined operations. These operations may be unary, binary, or ternary. In any such abstract algebra A the subalgebras form one (complete) lattice and the congruence relations form another.

Though not many results are valid for abstract algebras in general, it is known that any such algebra can be decomposed into subdirectly irreducible algebras. Using this general theorem of universal algebra it can be shown that any distributive lattice is isomorphic with a ring of sets.

In group rings and many other algebras all congruence relations are permutable; it follows that the congruence relations form a modular lattice. This

group and which shares this property is called a lattice ordered group or l -group

Though many noncommutative l -groups exist it is a striking fact that every complete l -group is necessarily commutative

Lattice ordered groups arise in function theory as well as in number theory If $f \leq g$ means that $f(x) \leq g(x)$ for all (or almost all) x then most function spaces of real functions form lattices They are also commutative group under addition Moreover

$$f(x) \leq g(x) \text{ implies } f(x) + c(x) \leq g(x) + c(x) \quad (4)$$

for any $c(x)$ this is simply (4) in additive notation Hence most (real) function spaces are l -groups In addition they are vector spaces in which

$$f \geq g \text{ and } \lambda \geq 0 \text{ imply } \lambda f \geq \lambda g \quad (4')$$

The l -group with these additional properties are vector lattices Although E H Moore and F Riesz had discussed related ideas earlier the first systematic analysis of vector lattices as such was made in 1937 by L V Kantorovich

The application of vector lattice concepts to function theory is still not very far advanced Using the intrinsic lattice topologies defined earlier and others related to them one can avoid the necessity of introducing a distance function in many function spaces Thus the notion of metric boundedness is equivalent to order boundedness for functionals on any Banach lattice and metric convergence is equivalent to relative uniform star convergence in a purely lattice theoretic sense

An additive l -group which is also a ring and whose multiplication satisfies the partial analog of (4)

$$\text{if } f \geq 0 \text{ and } g \geq 0 \text{ then } fg \geq 0 \quad (5)$$

is called a lattice ordered ring or l -ring Such l -rings have been studied systematically only since 1955 a typical theorem about them is the following An l -ring is a product of simply ordered rings if and only if it satisfies

$$a \cap b = 0 \text{ and } c \geq 0 \text{ imply } ca \cap cb = ac \cap b = 0 \quad (6)$$

Applications Already it is clear that the concepts of vector lattice and of l -ring are essential in various physical applications This was first apparent in connection with the ergodic theorem as proved in 1931 by G D Birkhoff and John von Neumann for the deterministic processes of classical mechanics A generalization of this theorem to stochastic processes whose natural formulation is based on the concept of a vector lattice was proved in 1939-1941 by Shizuo Kakutani and Kosaku Yosida

A second application is to the theory of Reynolds operators or averaging operators arising in turbulent fluid motions The essential connection with the order relation is simply the obvious principle that any average of nonnegative quantities is nonnegative Using this principle and the theory of l -ring one can decompose (subdirectly) any vector averaging operator into scalar components

A third application is to the concept of ergodicity in nuclear reactor theory Neutron chain reactions involve the birth (through fission) and death (through absorption) of neutrons The laws governing the evolution of the statistical distribution of neutrons (as functions of position velocity and time) evidently carry nonnegative distribution into nonnegative distributions To deduce the mathematical principle that the neutron distribution must satisfy the asymptotic relation $N(x, t) \sim e^{\lambda t} \psi(x, t)$ λ^{-1} being called the reactor period it is more convenient to reformulate the problem in lattice theoretic language One can then apply the result of Oskar Perron G Frobenius and R Jentzsch on positive linear operators to prove the desired result See LOGIC RING THEORY [c 8]

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Lattice constant

A parameter defining the unit cell of a crystal lattice that is the length of the edges of the cell and the angle between edges If the unit cell is a cube the side of it is the lattice constant and it is usually in this sense that the term is used The lattice constants of simple compounds of the type AX A_2X_2 having the sodium chloride cesium chloride zinc sulfide or calcium fluoride structure have values between 5 and 10 angstroms The lattice constants of the elements and of a variety of compounds are listed in the reference given in the bibliography See CRYSTALLOGRAPHY [c 10]

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Lattice vibrations

The atoms in a crystalline solid do not remain motionless at the lattice sites of the crystal but undergo periodic oscillation about the sites which are positions of equilibrium As the crystal is heated the amplitude of the vibration increases If the heating is continued the temperature of the crystal eventually reaches a value at which the vibrations are quite violent and the atoms then break away from their lattice site The solid can no longer retain its crystalline form and melt On the other hand if the crystal is cooled to absolute zero of temperature the amplitude of the vibration does not subside entirely A residual vibration of the atoms which is quantum mechanical in origin remains It is called the zero-point vibration

Lattice vibrations are included in many physical properties of crystalline materials For example the electrical resistance of a metal at low temperatures arises primarily from the scattering of the conduction electrons by the vibrating atoms

$U_p = U_0 = U - \pi a v_0 = \text{constant}$ and the medium is dispersionless

The number of modes $g(v)dv$ with frequencies between v and $v + dv$ can be calculated from Eq (4) by noticing that this number is also given by d_f . From this the distribution function $g(v)$ is

$$g(v) = 2N/(\pi\sqrt{v_0^2 - v^2}) \quad (7)$$

Figure 2 shows a plot of $g(v)$ for the lattice as given by Eq (7) and for the Debye continuum theory. The latter is simply $g(v) = 2N/\pi v_0$ with the range $0 < v \leq \pi v_0/2$.

The energy E of the lattice is given by

$$E = \int_0^{\pi v_0/2} \frac{g(v)h\nu dv}{e^{(h\nu/kT)} - 1} \quad (8)$$

where h is Planck's constant, k is Boltzmann's constant and T is the absolute temperature.

Three dimensional lattices In three dimensional models some attempt is usually made to approximate the conditions in actual crystals. At the same time the considerable mathematical complexity of the problem requires that the model be kept as simple as possible. A decision has to be made concerning both the number of neighbors to be included in the calculation and the types of forces acting between the particles before the equations of motion can be formulated.

The forces are of several kinds. A force which arises when the distance between a pair of neighbors changes is called a central or radial force. This is the type of force assumed for the one dimensional lattice discussed earlier. If a change in the angle between the pair of lines joining a given particle to two neighbors (bond lines) gives rise to a force, the force is called an angular force. A more general force compounded of radial and angular forces is often referred to as a noncentral force. The most general combination of noncentral forces compatible with symmetry requirements

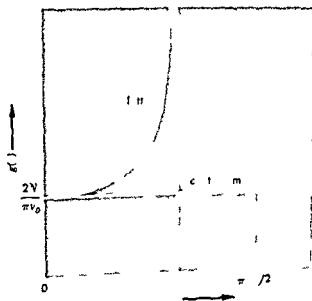


Fig 2 The function $g(v)$ for the one-dimensional lattice and the one-dimensional continuum

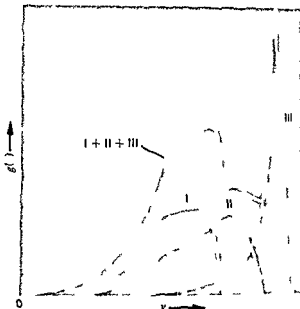


Fig 3 The function $g(v)$ obtained by Leighton for a face centered cubic lattice (After R B Leighton *Rev Mod Phys* 20 165-174 1948)

about the particles is commonly called a tensor force.

The types of forces just named are defined for a pair of particles or a pair of bond lines. The motions of the other particles or bond lines in the vicinity of the pair do not affect the force between the pair. In metal, however, the conduction electrons give rise to a type of force which cannot be defined in this manner. To visualize this, imagine that a group of particles (positive ions) move toward each other, thus increasing the local density. The corresponding increase in positive charge density is immediately compensated by a flow of conduction electrons into this region. However, the compressibility of this assembly of electrons is small, and the gas pressure is thus increased in its density. The electrons would thus screen the ions less completely, the ions would repel one another more strongly and consequently a stiffening would occur in the elastic constants involved. To summarize, additional forces are to oppose any change in particle density. This is clearly a cooperative or collective effect not covered by the type of forces just listed. The forces produced by this collective effect are sometimes called volume forces.

A common objective of the theory of lattice vibrations is the calculation of the distribution function $g(v)$. Analytic methods generally cannot be used and the calculations must be done numerically. R B Leighton (1948) calculated $g(v)$ for a model of a face centered cubic lattice with central force between nearest neighbors and between next nearest neighbors. Figure 3 shows his result obtained after much labor for a selection of force constant approximations. The availability of high speed digital computers has now reduced this labor to the extent that calculations of distribution functions are becoming increasingly common.

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Launching pad complex

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e t b l h g d e s f r l n h T h e s l l

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T h e l t t e q j m n t u l l y w k j u t n
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t h t m o f l a n h

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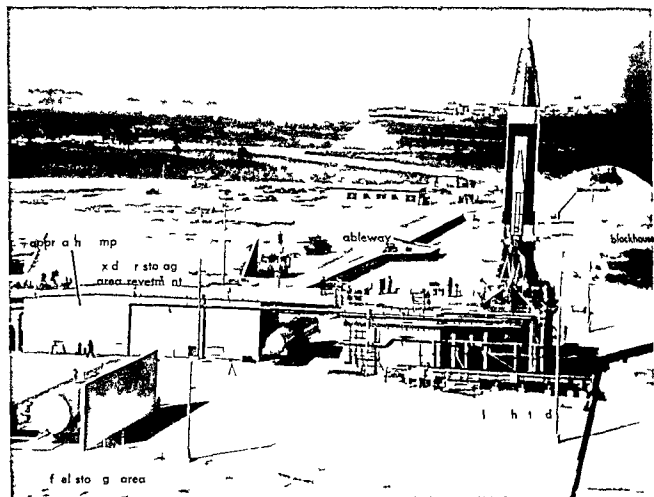


Fig 1 Atlas ICBM flight test launch complex

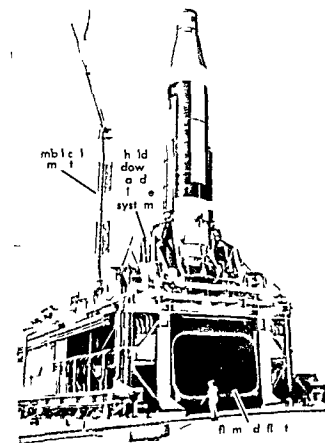


Fig 2 Launch stand for liquid-fueled ICBM

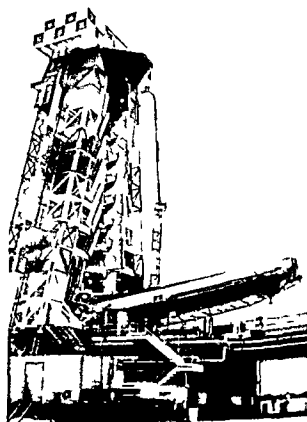


Fig 3 Service tower mobile big extended



Fig 4. The IRBM blockhouse



Fig 5. Rec'd g. A typical blockhouse

located accurate geodetic survey with the station usually needed to the site for the purpose of establishing a reference system.

Because safety considerations in the first and subsequent attacks are generally multiplied in the vicinity of the stand for firing a firing range during live operations.

The launch and service tower may include a complete water delivery system for cooling fires. This but the many means provided to protect the launch equipment.

Blockhouse A typical fixed missile firing site in the design of the missile is designed to protect the missile from the effects of the launch and the effects of the missile during test (Fig 4). The blockhouse is a structure that is less a direct firing position than the missile may be located and fired remotely and data from test recorded automatically (Fig 5).

The design of the blockhouse will depend upon the launch site. The blockhouse is designed to protect the missile from the effects of the launch and the effects of the missile during test. The blockhouse is a structure that is less a direct firing position than the missile may be located and fired remotely and data from test recorded automatically. The design of the blockhouse will depend upon the launch site. The blockhouse is designed to protect the missile from the effects of the launch and the effects of the missile during test. The blockhouse is a structure that is less a direct firing position than the missile may be located and fired remotely and data from test recorded automatically.

Blockhouse door should be designed to withstand the impact of the wall of the

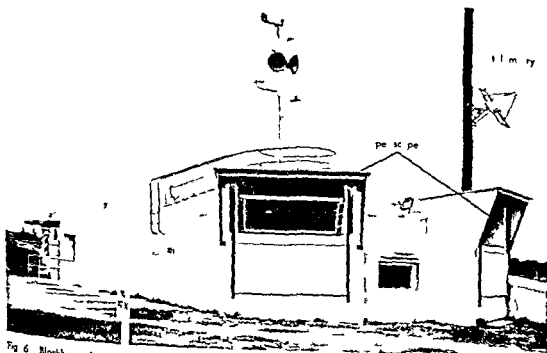
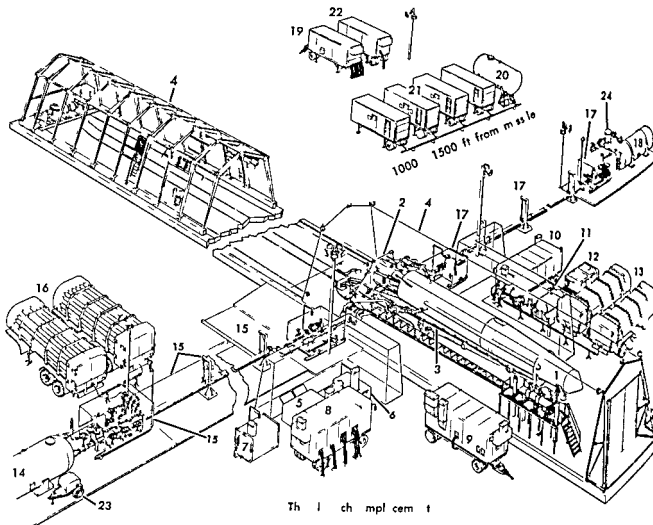


Fig 6. Blockhouse of missile. A typical design.



Th I ch mpl cem t

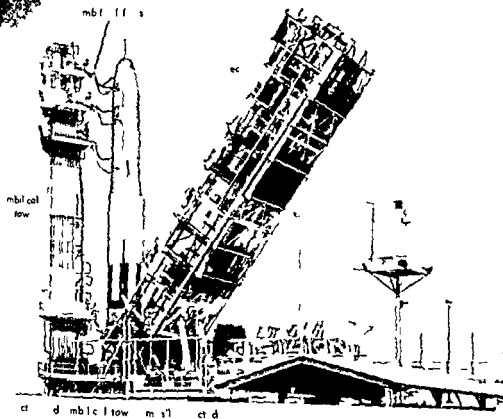
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o t d o w g p
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y s t m c t l l
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12 p w d p l g m p

- 13 mp d g s y l d s m t l
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14 l q d y g s t o g t k
15 l q d y g p p l t f t
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20 d l f l s t o g t k
21 t l m o t d d l g g o t s t
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23 t l m o t d m p m p
24 t l m o t d f l f l t

Fig 7 Launch site for Thor missile T-1 mounted equipment erects checks out fuel and festh missile

structure itself. Baffled underground escape hatches and tunnels are sometimes used so that in the event of a missile crash near the Blockhouse door a safe exit may be made by the personnel inside. Air intake for the air conditioning system will be through such remote escape tunnels if possible. During a launch all fresh air intakes are closed and only recirculated air is used. Blockhouse for smaller missile may safely include periscopes for visual observation (Fig 6).

The blockhouse is connected to the launch stand by a cable at a low ground which is usually protected against destruction by fire or blast. The cable may contain hundreds of wire pairs through which monitoring and control signals during ground check out and initiation of the launch phase. Terminal rooms are provided at the blockhouse and launch stand for access to all control and repair. The rooms may also contain control and recording equipment as well as components



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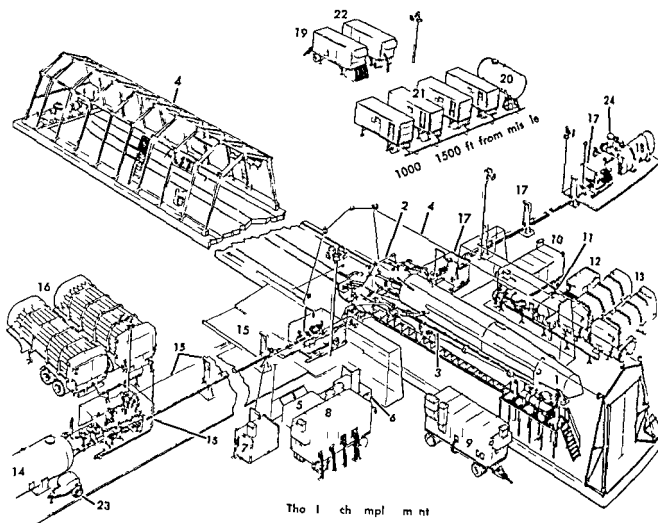
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- 1 The missile
- 2 ballistic missile target height
- 3 ballistic missile
- 4 parallel platform for the launch pad
- 5 hydraulic pump system
- 6 terminal control system
- 7 knowledge of power with board
- 8 terminal control system for the launch pad
- 9 terminal control system for the launch pad
- 10 terminal control system for the launch pad
- 11 high pressure gas system
- 12 power distribution system

- 13 missile guidance system
- 14 launch pad guidance system
- 15 launch pad platform
- 16 missile guidance system
- 17 flight platform
- 18 flight platform
- 19 terminal control system with board
- 20 launch pad guidance system
- 21 terminal control system for the launch pad
- 22 terminal control system for the launch pad
- 23 terminal control system for the launch pad
- 24 terminal control system for the launch pad

Fig 7 Launching site for Thor missile. Trailing mobile equipment erects, checks out, fuels, and fires the missile.

structure itself. Baffled underground escape latches and tunnels are sometimes used so that in event of a missile crash near the blockhouse door, a safe exit may be made by the personnel inside. Air intake for the air conditioning system will be through such remote escape tunnels if possible. During a launch all fresh air intakes are closed and only recirculated air is used. Blockhouses for smaller missiles may safely include periscopes for visual observation (Fig 6).

The blockhouse is connected to the launch stand by a cable above or below ground which usually is protected against destruction by fire or blast. The cable may contain hundreds of wire pairs through which minute ring and control signals pass during ground checkout and initiation of the launch phase. Terminal rooms are provided at the blockhouse and in the launch area for all the necessary personnel. The room may also contain the launch control equipment and a communications

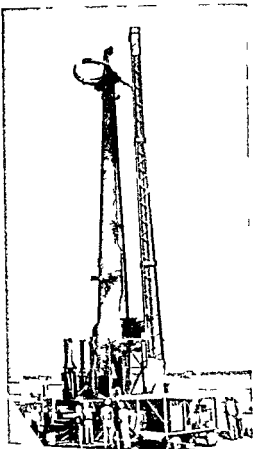


Fig 10 Typ 1 IRBM t p r t e c t m b l l
st d l h f p t l

to ectu f m b l l F m p l f t h e
h l t t e p m i t c e t m g h t b e m d e
l y t h b f t h m l e, d m b l a l
t l d b q e d

Pad for solid propellant rockets I t h f
e r t l l y l h e d l g e l d p p l l t k t
t h l h m p l e m l t t h t d e c b d f
t h e l q d e p t t h a t t h t e m q e t t h e
b d l u n g f l i q u d m t t d W g h g f t h e
m u l e m e h t b m p d t l y c m p l h d
m a m b l y a, d t t t t w l d n t
m l l y b m d e t l h g t e T h h t
t d b r n t m f l d e s p t l f t
f f m k t h d r y t d t t t e l t h s t y p f
t d t h f m d f t m y t l m t l w i t h
h g h t p t v p t l m m
m y g n t h p b l e m l g t h S h
m t h d l m t h d f g r t q t t f
l g t d t h l b o t p l m b g y t e m
q d f w t p d

A s p l p b l m t h t w t h l d p p l
l t s t h t f d l w t h l g q u t t y f
h g h l y f m m b l d l l y p l m t l
B s o l d p p l l t t t h m l t
t h f t r y t h t l h t d h k t m t
l n d t e d w t h t m l h z a d
d F t h m j b y t m f t
h k d t p t l y f m t h m l p p d

the tire hicle a mbled t t h e l u n c h m p l e x
I t h u c e t h m p l x n t a i n a n i l a t e d
a m b l y a r e a w t h e l a b o r a t e a f t y a n d f e p r e v e
t p r t o

For m a l l e t a l l y l u n c h e d r e c t t h e
l a u n c i n g f a c i l i t y i s m h i m p l e r T l l l k h
m y l e r p l a c e d l y a c n r t w a l l a d t h e
l a u n c h e r a n d f l m d e f t e r e d e d i t a t e l r n g
n c r e t e p d

I n t h e a e o f n n r t a l l y l a u n c h e d m l l a
z e o l e g h r r a l t y p e l a u n c h e r i s o f t n u e d (F g
9) T h e l l l g e m p l e x m i g h t a l c n t a i n a
c o m m d t a t i n f r p r i d n g i t r u c t i n t t h e
c h c l e f r l h r r e c e r y

Operational systems The l a u n c h c m p l e x i n t h e
h d f t r o o p d e s n t r y g f i n t l y i p a n
c i p l e f r m t h t r q e d f r t e s t l i t m a n c h g
m y l m a d e i n d f e r e n t p r a t i n a l c n c e p t
T h e t e f t t h n g e s f r m a p a m r y p a r t f
t h e p r c e d e t t h e m m r e q u i r e d t a h e v e
h g l p h a l t y o f u c c e f l l a h (F i g 10)

F m a l l m i l e t h l o c k h u e s r e d e d t o
a m o d e t t r u t u r e f t e n a d l g r e v e t m n t
f f e s W h e m l l y m p r t a n t a d p o l l e
e m d e f m l t p l e p r p l l e s w t h t h e
a b l i t y t r a n p r t e r e c t a d l u c h n g l e m i s s i l e

F l g m i l e r e q u i r i n g h e a y l g t i u p
p r t t h e s n t r u t e d h a r d l a n c h c m p l e
T h i n l m a p e t i t g a i t n e a r d i r e c t
h i t s b y e m y m i l e s I n t h t y p f e r a t i n
n e m a y f i d t h e n t r l a n c h c m p l u d e r
g u d w t h l y t e m w l d p e r e d M a y a c h
m l m p l e e s c a b n t r l l e d f m a c e t r a l
c m m d p n t [J r]

Lava

M l t r o c k m t l t a t c h e t h e e a r t h a
f a c e t h r g h o l e a e t a d f i r e s a l t h e
g n e o r k f r m e d b y c o l d t f h m l
t n m t e r l R l t l y r a p d o o l g a t h t h
f m a y t f m f l d l a i t d t e
t e d l n i c r o c k c m p o e d f t i c r y t l g l a s
b t h M l t r k m t r l b l w t h e a r t h
f h w i l l y k n w n a m g m a d u p
l g g r e t e g r a e d i g n e o r k
h g t g a b b

M g m d l a a r m t u l l t o f l e t e
m e l w t h m l e s d s l e d g e s W h e
m g m a b g h t t h t r f c f r m g i f
h g h p e w t h t h e r t h t g e s e p a n d
d f r m b b b l e s i n t h f l d l a I f t h s l
q k l y g e l m y f t h e s b b b l e s m y b
t p p e d t f m h g h l y p k

T h t m p t e f l q d l a a g e s w e l d y b t
g l l y t d n t c e d 1200 C. L a p o o i n
l a (b l t) r t h m t f l d d m f l w
d w n r y g t l l p f m m l T h e H w a s
f l w d m m l y a t t f b t 2
m l p h S l h l (r h y l t) a e
h h l y T h y m l w l y d f l t l
h r t d t A l l t b m e s m
d t h t f f l w d R p d c l

Fixed fuel storage and pumping areas are ordinarily located on the opposite side of the launching stand from the oxidizer area for safety. In many systems the more dangerous and corrosive propellants are handled and transferred by means of specially designed trailers. Even liquid oxygen may be transported in field trailers with their own pumping and pressurization systems and introduced into the system through a loading manifold. Both fuel and oxidizer systems may usually be operated remotely from the blockhouse.

A method of dumping propellants is usually provided. Liquid oxygen may be dumped into a concrete evaporation pond or a cleared area remote from the launch complex. Fuel is rarely dumped on the ground but is either fed back into the storage tank or piped to a fuel holding pond where it can be later disposed of by tank truck. More elaborate closed systems are required for highly toxic or otherwise dangerous propellants.

General support For static test firings large amounts of water are necessary to cool the flame bucket or flame deflector. For the Atlas and Titan missiles as much as 30 000 gallons per minute (gpm) must be provided for a period of 3-5 min. It is possible to launch a missile from a dry pad. However the dry flame deflector whether it be steel, copper or concrete can withstand only a few seconds of flame impingement.

Electric power Two independent power supplies are desirable in the launch complex. The first, sometimes called critical power, is accurately regulated with regard to frequency and voltage in addition to being derived from a local independent and highly reliable source. Its primary purpose is for instrumentation but it may be used in case of emergency for those operations necessary for system shut down such as emergency defueling, depressurization of tanks and tower erection.

The second source of power, referred to as utility power, usually carries the heavy motor pump air conditioning and other load required in the complex. Because of the intermittent operation of some of these loads, line regulation is not usually maintained as precisely as that of critical power.

Power requirements vary depending on the missile system. A typical intercontinental ballistic missile (ICBM) complex may require 500-1000 kilovolt-amperes (kva) each of critical and utility power. An emergency generator may also be provided to furnish a few hundred kilowatt-hours.

Pressurized gas supply High pressure gas systems (helium, nitrogen or others) are necessary at the launch complex for liquid propelled missiles. Pressures in the vicinity of 5000 pounds per square inch (psi) are used in filling the gases which may be used at somewhat lower pressures of 2000-3000 psi. There are two methods of filling the gas storage bottle: the gas may be pumped up to the pressure by a multiple stage compressor or in the case of nitrogen, the liquid nitrogen may be preheated to 5000 psi and expanded at that pressure into the storage tank.

These high pressure gas systems must be kept clean because the gas comes in contact with the interior of the missile directly or indirectly through the propellants. The gases must also be kept free of moisture because contact with cryogenic fluid would result in ice formation in valves and regulators. Also, the presence of oil in the gas might allow hydrocarbon contamination of the missile or the support system. Such contamination could result in an explosion when in contact with the oxidizer.

Timing and communication Because even particularly those telemetered and recorded must be accurately time correlated in a test situation, the launch complex must either accept externally generated timing signals or generate timing signals referenced to radio transmissions from station WWV or other standards. In the usual case where the blockhouse is situated on a test range, the complex will simply provide for connection to an external timing system.

Communication is a serious problem during test and preparation. An adequate operational intercommunication system is necessary both within the launch complex and to supporting areas. Even with excellent communications equipment, the reaction time of personnel is too long for certain decision making requirements. Automatic sequencing equipment is widely used to provide programmed relay closures, measurements and comparison. In this way information for many important decisions may be obtained quickly.

Combined erector and tower There are of course many variations of the sophisticated system described above. In some cases the erection of the vehicle is accomplished by a crane attached to the service tower and a suitable trailer to transport the missile and offer longitudinal support during the lifting operation. In other cases the service tower itself may serve as a retractable erector which receives the missile while lying in a horizontal position and then raises it to the vertical. While in the vertical position, the erector functions as the service tower (Fig. 8). When preparations are complete, the work platform are opened and the erector is returned to the horizontal position for firing. Variations may exist also in the method of lifting.

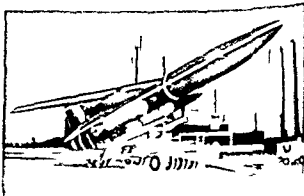


Fig. 9. S. K. zeol gth l ch r

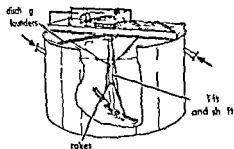


Fig 1 Dorr agitator (F m W L & dg d J T)
Ba ch I trad ct to Ch m I E g g M
Gra H H 1955)

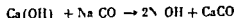
l ag ent tal am unt f sol t and al re-
l t nger f l ex tr ct

F b h w a h g of p re p it a t e s w h i c h c a o t
b e l c h e d a t f a c t o i l i n a t n k t h e D o r r g i t a
t r h w a F g l i o f t u d T h u n t i a
r u l t a k e q u i p p e d w i t h a l o w l y t a t i g r a k e
i n t h b o t t m w h i c h m o e s e t t l e d o l d t o t h
c e n t r e f t h e t k T h e a t l i f t t h e t i b f
h u c h c i s a l s o a t h e h a f t f o r t h e k l i f t s
l o r y t t h e l d r w h i c h l r t a t e w i t h t h e
h f t T h f d e r d t i b t t h s i d e r t h e t p
f t h l q d, s o t h e l y t l s t h u g h t h e l q
u d f r d d u o a l t b t h e l e t A f t e r
d f t t i m e t h e e t i e b t h i p u m p e d t h r g h
f i t o p t e t h s o l d n d l q u d

C o n t i n u o u s c o u n t e r c u r r e n t l e a c h i n g B a t h
t a n k l e h n g h s t w o d d i g e F i t
t h e o t f r e m g t h e o l d a d h r n g n g t h
t k m y b e h h a d e d e t h r t h c e t
t n f t h e f i a l e x t a t l o w r o n d e b l n
t r a t e d s o l u t r m a i n t h e l a c h e d l d T h e
f i l t m u s t n i s m m e d b y t h u f t
q p m e t i n w h h t s i d a d l i q d
b o t h m d m h a l l y d t h e n d d f i u l v
e d b y t h u f e r e o f l e h t a n k a d
t h e c t r r e n t f l w f l e t t h o g h t h
t k n e r d t t h e f l w o f l d i n t h
a r t h m o t e a r l y x h a t e d s i d e x t t d

w i t h f r h o l e n t n d t h e f r e h l i d i s i n c o n t a c t
w i t h t h m o t e n e t r a t e d l e a c h l i t n

T h e c n t r i c o u t r e c u r r e n t m t l i s e s
c i a l l y e f f e c t i v e i n t h w a s h i n g f r r i g i t a t F r
t h a e r i e f t h i c k r s u e d (s T h u c a r n
i n c) T h e f l w d i a g r a m o f a n e x m p l e f t h i s
t m s h w i n F i g T h e p u r p o e f t h i p l n t
t m a k e a l i t i o n f u t i c o d a i n w a t e r l
t h e a t i c i z a t i o n o f d a a b l y t h e r e a c t i n



T h e r e a t n t i l f i c o n d i t e d i n t h t h r e e m i x
i g t n k s l o w n a t t h l e f t h a d e n d o f t h f l o w
d i a g r a m T h e r e s u l t f t h e c h m i a l a c t i o n i t h e
f o r m a t i o n o f a l u d g e f C a C O _ 3 u p n e d i n a o
l i t i n o f c n n t r a t n b h a t 1 0 ^ { \circ } \text{N O H T h
t u r r e a t n m i x t r e f l w t t h e l a u d e r o f t h
l e f t h a n d t h k n e r n w h h u t a p a r a t e d i s o a
l o e f l w o f 1 0 ^ { \circ } l u t i a d a C a C O _ 3 l u d g e
a r y n g a c n d r a l l a m u n t f t h e s o l u t i n w h
i t a a d h e r i n g l i q u d T h e l d g e i c t i n u s l y
p u m p e d l y d p l r g m p u m p t t h f e e d l a u d e r
f t h m i d d l t h k e n e r i n w h i c h i t i s m e d w i t h
d i l t e l t n f r m t h e r g h t l n d t h k n T h

f l w l t i f r m t h e m i d d l t h k e n r n w
r r y i n g m t f t h N a O H l o a d i n w i t h t h
l d g f m t h l e f t h a d u t a t r a d r e l y t
t h a t a g u t t e r f r m l w t r f r t h r
a t n a n d f t h f i a l 1 0 ^ { \circ } l u t i r f l n g
f o m t h e l f t l d t h k e l t h r i g h t l n l
t h i k n e r t h l d g e f r m t h e m i d d l t h k n r i
g i a f i n a l w a h w t h f e s h w t e r n t i n g f r m
i t d T h l d g e d h a r d f r m t h i t h k e n
a r l y f r l c a t i c o d A d d i t i o n t h k n
m a b e a d d e d t t h e s y t e m i f t i l m r e t h i g l
w a s i g f i l l i d i d r e d

W h n t h e l d i n l a r g l i m p r w h n t h
t o f l t i l w a t t p r t l l t m
t h e l d f m t n k t t k T h e n a m o d i f e d c
t r r n m e i h l l e d a S h a n k s y t e m a d f
f n b a t t e y u e d T h i m t h o d g e s t h e f f
t i u f l i n t a n d t h w i l l e t r a c t e d s i d o f
t h e n t e r u r n t m t h d T h e p r i c i p l f t h

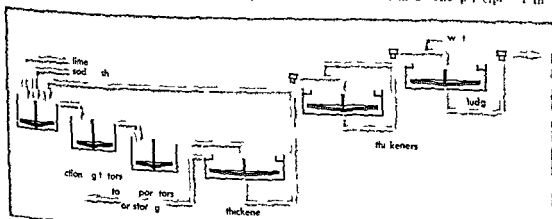


Fig 2 (b) C o n t i n u o u s c o u n t e r c u r r e n t l e a c h i n g (F m
W L & dg d J T B h I t d t t Ch m
a o f E g n e g M G w H H 1955)

ing as at the surface of a flow promotes the formation of glass. Slower cooling as near the center of a flow favors the growth of crystal.

During many volcanic eruptions the lava is so rapidly ejected that it is blown to bits by the explosive force of expanding gases. The small masses rapidly congeal and settle to the earth to form thick blankets of volcanic tuff and related pyroclastic rock. Lava flows and volcanic tuffs cover large areas of the earth's surface and may form more or less alternating layers totaling many thousands of feet in thickness. See IGNEOUS ROCKS. MAGMA. PYROCLASTIC ROCKS. TUFF. VOLCANIC GLASS. VOLCANO. [C A C]

Layout drawing

A design drawing or graphical statement of the overall form of a component or device which is usually prepared during the innovative stages of a design. The detail and completeness of a layout drawing are not adequate to ensure a faithful explanation of the device and its construction to any but such individuals as designer and draftsmen who have been intimately involved in the conceptual stage. In a sense the layout drawing is a running record of ideas and problems posed as the design takes form and evolves. In the layout drawing for instance considerations of kinematic design of a mechanical component are explored graphically in incomplete detail with only those aspects being stressed for which graphic portrayal of the elements and their interrelationships would contribute to the evolving design.

In most cases the layout drawing ultimately becomes the primary source of information from which detail drawings and assembly drawings are prepared by other draftsmen under the guidance of the designer. See ENGINEERING DRAWING.

[R W M]

Lazurite

The chief mineral constituent in the ornamental stone lapis lazuli. It crystallizes in the isometric system but well formed crystals usually dodecahedral are rare. Most commonly it is granular or in compact masses. There is imperfect dodecahedral cleavage. The hardness is 5-5.5 on Mohs scale and the specific gravity is 2.4-2.5. There is vitreous luster and the color is a deep azure more rarely a greenish blue. Lazurite is a tectosilicate the composition of which is expressed by the formula $\text{Na}_4\text{Al}_3\text{Si}_3\text{O}_{10}$. Some S may be replaced by SO_4 or Cl. Lazurite is soluble in hydrochloric acid with the evolution of hydrogen sulfide. See SILICATE MINERALS.

Lazurite is a feldspathoid but unlike the other member of that group is not found in igneous rock. It occurs exclusively in crystalline lime stones as a contact metamorphic mineral. Lapis lazuli is a mixture of lazurite with other silicates and calcite and usually contains an exsolved pyrite. It has long been valued as an ornamental material. Lazurite was formerly used as the blue pigment ultramarine.

marine in oil painting. Localities of occurrence are in Afghanistan, Lake Bikal, Siberia, Chile and San Bernardino County, California. See FELDSPATHOID. [C A C]

Leaching

The dissolving by a liquid solvent of soluble material from its mixture with an insoluble solid. Leaching is an industrial separation operation based on mass transfer. Example: the washing of a soluble salt from the surface of an insoluble precipitate; the extraction of sugar from sugar beets of oil from oil bearing seed; of metal and their compounds from crude ore and of tannin from tanbark. The solvent may be cold or hot water as in the washing of a precipitate or the leaching of sugar beets; it may be a special organic solvent as in the extraction of oil from seed; or it may be a chemical solution as in the extraction of copper compounds by aqueous ammonia.

Leaching is closely related to solvent extraction in which a soluble substance is dissolved from one liquid by a second liquid immiscible with the first. Both leaching and solvent extraction are often called extraction.

The rate and mechanism of leaching depend upon the structure of the solid and the distribution of the solute in or on the solid. One extreme is in the washing of a precipitate where all the solute is on the surface of the solid and is already dissolved in the solvent adhering to the particles. In this case solution is rapid and complete as soon as the solid and solvent are well mixed as slurry. Another extreme is found in the leaching of vegetable matter such as seed or beet where the solute is behind cell walls or otherwise intimately dispersed throughout the solid structure. Then because the mass transfer is by the slow process of solid diffusion and only a small available time must be allowed for the extraction. Another situation is found in metallurgical leaching where the metal is finely dispersed in the ore. The ore is then usually crushed before leaching to free the metal fraction for interaction with the solvent.

Batch leaching. The kind of equipment used for leaching also depends on the structure and particle size of the solid. Relatively large lumps of solid are treated in simple vertical tank equipped with perforated false bottom. The fresh liquid is placed in the tank and solvent poured over it. The extract drains through the false bottom to the bottom of the tank. An external pump may be used to circulate solvent from the bottom of the tank back to the top for additional passes through the solid. When the solvent and solid are in equilibrium the liquid called the extract is drained off, the extracted solid is discarded and another batch charged to the tank.

A more efficient use of solvent is obtained by dissolving the total solvent into several equal fractions and using each fraction separately with a drain at the end of each treatment. All extracts are then combined. This gives a much rougher leach

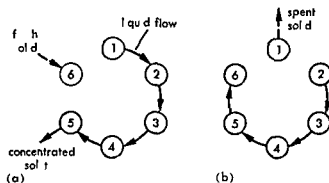


Fig 3 Countercurrent leaching by Shanks system (a) Beginning of cycle (b) First step in 6-step cycle (From R E Treybal *Mass Transfer Operations* McGraw Hill 1955)

Shanks technique is to retain each batch of solid in the same cell or extractor during its entire leach but by appropriate piping to change the flow of liquid periodically in such a way that the charge in any one cell is treated with successively weaker solution until fresh solvent is used and then dumping the exhausted solid and charging the cell with fresh solid. The process is shown in the diagrammatic flow sheet of Fig 3 which shows a 6-cell Shanks system. In Fig 3a cell 6 is empty ready for a fresh charge of solid. The oldest charge is in cell 1 and those in cells 2, 3, and 4 are successively younger with the freshest charge in cell 5. The solvent flows in the order 1-2-3-4-5. This flow pattern is maintained for a definitely scheduled time until the solid in cell 5 has been leached to the desired thoroughness and in the meantime cell 6 is charged with fresh solid. Then the flow is changed to that shown in Fig 3b and cell 1 is cut out and dumped. This cyclic process continues indefinitely.

In practice the cells are usually arranged in a straight line instead of the circle shown in Fig 3. The piping is arranged to give the same sequence of operation as in the circular arrangement. This reduces the floor area required for the battery and facilitates the use of a belt conveyor for charging the cell from the top. The exhausted solids are dumped from the bottom of the cell and a second belt conveyor which removes them from the system. Heater may be installed in the liquid flow system between each pair of cells to keep the solvent hot. If the temperature is also the boiling temperature of the solvent at atmospheric pressure the system is operated under pressure except when the cell are being charged or discharged.

For more difficult leaching operations especially of oil-bearing seed material, systems highly specialized for the specific industrial application have been developed. See MASS TRANSFER OPERATIONS SEPARATION (MECHANICAL) [W.L.M.]

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Lead

Chemical element number 82 lead Pb is a heavy metal (p. gr. 11.34) with atomic weight 207.21. Lead has a bright bluish color which tarnishes to a dull gray. It is a pliable malleable and easily fusible metal, melts at 327.4°C and boils at 1740°C. The normal chemical valences of lead are two and four. It is relatively resistant to attack by sulfuric and hydrochloric acids but dissolves slowly in nitric acid. Lead is amphoteric forming lead salts of acids as well as metal salts of plumbic acid. Lead forms many metal oxides and organometallic compounds.

Industrially the most important lead compound are the lead oxides and tetraethyllead. Lead forms alloys with many metals and is generally employed in the form of alloy in most applications. Alloy formed with tin, copper, or antimony has much cadmium and antimony are all of industrial importance. See LEAD ALLOYS TETRAETHYLLEAD.

Lead compounds are highly toxic and lead poisoning was at one time a common occupational disease. The greatest industrial hazard arises from the inhalation of vapors or dusts of inorganic lead compounds. In the case of organic lead compounds, absorption through the skin may become significant. Some of the symptoms of lead poisoning are lead ache, dizziness, and in chronic acute cases there is usually stupor progressing to coma and terminating in death. With proper precautions, however, industrial lead poisoning can be entirely prevented. See TOXICOLOGY.

Lead is one of the oldest known metals and the earliest archaeological specimens date from about 3000 B.C. It is mentioned in the Bible, the Old Testament, and in ancient Egypt it was used in glazes, pottery, and make. Ornamental objects of lead were used extensively by the Romans for water pipes, even to the extent of being standardized by size and length.

Natural occurrence Nearly world production of lead is about 2,000,000 tons. The leading countries in lead mining and production are Australia, the United States, and the Soviet Union. In the United States, a unique feature is that it consumes more metal than it produces (about 50% of the world's consumption). Other important sources of lead are Mexico, Canada, Peru, Yugoslavia, and

Type metals Type metals contain 2-25% antimony Antimony inter alia hard and red crystalline and reproduces in the form of a fine powder and the melting temperature is 115°C. Commonly used type metal melt at 460-500°C.

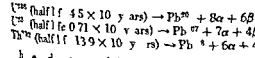
Bearing metals Lead bearing metal (labbitt metal) contains 10-15% antimony 5-10% tin and for some applications molybdenum or silver. Copper, tin, antimony, and lead form a hard alloy which provides wear resistance. These alloys find application in cast lead bearings. In many cases the lead is replaced by tin.

Solders A large number of lead bearing alloys have been developed. The amount of tin with selected minor additions provides specific benefits such as improved wetting characteristics.

Free-machining brasses bronzes and steels Lead is added in many forms to brasses and bronzes to improve machining characteristics. Lead is also added to some carbon steels to improve machinability. Only about 0.1% is needed but this is limited. The alloys that form an important class are **LEAD LEAD METALLURGY SOLDERING TI ALLOY** [DNW]

Lead isotopes geochemistry of

The study of the isotopic composition of lead in minerals and rocks is of great importance. Lead has four isotopes of relative mass 204, 206, 207, 208. Pb-204 is a stable isotope. Pb-206, Pb-207, and Pb-208 are produced by the decay of uranium and thorium.



The lead isotope composition (doubly charged) is a function of the age of the sample. The lead isotope composition is defined as the ratio of the number of atoms of the different isotopes. The lead isotope composition is determined by mass spectrometry. The lead isotope composition is a function of the age of the sample. The lead isotope composition is determined by mass spectrometry. The lead isotope composition is a function of the age of the sample. The lead isotope composition is determined by mass spectrometry.

Fortitatively common rock has a granitic and a mafic high ratio of the different isotopes. The lead isotope composition is a function of the age of the sample. The lead isotope composition is determined by mass spectrometry.

It is a common feature of many of the minerals that they contain lead. The lead isotope composition is a function of the age of the sample. The lead isotope composition is determined by mass spectrometry. The lead isotope composition is a function of the age of the sample. The lead isotope composition is determined by mass spectrometry.

Variation with time If the uranium and lead content of a sample is known, the age of the sample can be determined. The lead isotope composition is a function of the age of the sample. The lead isotope composition is determined by mass spectrometry. The lead isotope composition is a function of the age of the sample. The lead isotope composition is determined by mass spectrometry.

The time variation has been studied in two different ways. The lead isotope composition is a function of the age of the sample. The lead isotope composition is determined by mass spectrometry. The lead isotope composition is a function of the age of the sample. The lead isotope composition is determined by mass spectrometry.

The isotopic composition of lead has been determined for a number of different samples.

Because of the poor structural strength of lead it is generally used in the form of its alloys particularly in combination with antimony or is used as coatings or plates on stronger structural metals. Tin alloys are frequently used in protective plates to impart mechanical strength and better corrosion resistance. To some extent the lead that has gone into the usual architectural and plumbing applications in the past such as roofing and flashings for example is now being displaced by other material. However this decrease in basic architectural uses is being offset increasingly by growth in specialized uses.

For example lead has long been used as protective shielding for x-ray machines. Because of the expanded applications of atomic energy radiation shielding applications of lead have become increasingly important. Basically shielding effectiveness against radiation depends on density and lead has the highest density of the commonly available materials. Wherever glass windows are required in radiation equipment a type of glass containing large amounts of lead is used. See RADIATION SHIELDING.

Lead has long been used in construction because of its vibration damping properties. Heavy machinery and even large buildings are isolated from vibration by placing them on pads of lead. In inertial guidance research the experimental chambers are isolated from adjacent ground and structures by the use of massive lead pad.

Lead sheathing for telephone and television cables continues to be a sizable outlet for lead. The unique ductility of lead makes it particularly suitable for this application because it can be extruded in a continuous sheath around the internal conductors. The lead used in this application is generally alloyed with small amounts of arsenic and bismuth.

The use of lead in pigments has been a major outlet for lead but is decreasing in volume. White lead $2\text{PbCO}_3 \cdot \text{Pb(OH)}_2$ is the most extensively used lead pigment. It is prepared from metallic lead by treatment with acetic acid, air, and carbon dioxide. It is an excellent pigment because of its outstanding chemical affinity for paint vehicles and its great hiding power. Pigments such as red lead (Pb_3O_4) and blue lead (a combination of basic lead sulfate PbSO_4 , PbO , zinc oxide, and carbon) are used as metal protective pigments in paints. Other lead pigments of importance are basic lead sulfate and lead chromates. The lead chromates are frequently used as dyes in formulating yellow, orange, red, and green paints. See PIGMENTS.

The high density of lead, which permits a maximum of striking power with a minimum of air resistance, has made lead the ideal metal for bullets and shot. Lead shot is manufactured by a unique process which involves dropping molten lead into water from height up to 125 ft thus freezing lead in the spherical form as summed by the droplet.

Principal compounds. A considerable variety of lead compounds such as silicate, carbonate

and salts of organic acids are used as heat and light stabilizers for polyvinyl chloride plastics. These compounds are both inexpensive and effective. They function as hydrogen chloride acid acceptors thereby preventing the autocatalytic breakdown of the plastic by the acid.

Certain inorganic lead compounds find specialized use. Lead silicates are used for the manufacture of glass and ceramic frits which are useful in introducing lead into glass and ceramic finishes. Lead azide $\text{Pb(N}_3)_2$ is the standard detonator for explosives. Lead arsenates are used in large quantities as insecticides for crop protection. Organic insecticides have displaced lead arsenate to some extent but not completely because they have not been found as effective in certain applications.

[U.S. 1030]

Bibliography. Lead Industries Association *Lead in Modern Industry* 1952. N. V. Sidgwick *Chemical Elements and Their Compounds* vol. 1 1950.

Lead alloys

Substances formed by the addition of one or more elements usually metals to lead. Lead alloys may exhibit greatly improved mechanical or physical properties as compared to pure lead. The major alloying additions to lead are antimony and tin. The solubilities of most other elements in lead are small but even fractional weight per cent addition of some of these elements, notably copper and arsenic, can alter properties appreciably.

Cable sheathing alloys. Lead is used as a sheath over the electrical components to protect power and telephone cable from moisture. Alloys containing 1% antimony are used for telephone cable and lead-arsenic alloys containing 0.15% arsenic, 0.1% tin, and 0.1% bismuth for example are used for power cable. Aluminum and plastic cable sheathing are replacing lead alloy sheathing in many applications but improvements in methods of applying a lead sheathing (continuous extrusion) may offset this trend somewhat.

Battery grid alloys. Lead alloy grids are used in the lead acid storage battery (the type used in automobiles) to support the active material composing the plate. Lead grid alloys contain 1% antimony for strength, small amounts of tin to improve castability, and one or more other minor additions to retard dimensional change in service. No lead alloy capable of replacing the lead-antimony alloys in automotive batteries have been developed although research in this area has been extensive. An alloy containing 0.03% aluminum is used in large stationary batteries has met with some success.

Chemical resistant alloys. Lead alloys are used extensively in many applications requiring resistance to water, atmosphere, or chemical corrosion. Lead alloys are noted for their resistance to sulfuric acid. Alloys most commonly contain 0.05% copper or 1% antimony which are greater strength needed. The first two alloys were corrosion resistant in many green

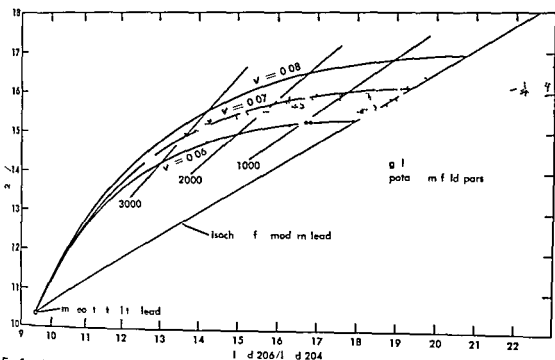


Fig 2 Pb²⁰⁶/Pb²⁰⁴ vs Pb²⁰⁸/Pb²⁰⁴ for lead from the earth's crust. The data points are plotted on a graph showing the relationship between the two ratios. The x-axis is labeled 'Pb²⁰⁶/Pb²⁰⁴' and the y-axis is labeled 'Pb²⁰⁸/Pb²⁰⁴'. The data points are clustered around a line that represents the expected relationship for lead from the earth's crust. The line is labeled 'Earth's crust' and has a slope of approximately 1.25. The data points are labeled with various symbols and numbers, including 'f', 'ct', 'Pb', 'Pb²⁰⁶', 'Pb²⁰⁸', 'Pb²⁰⁴', 't', 'm', 'hyp', 'th', 't', 'c', 'l', 'f', 'o', 'm', 'ts', 'Th', 'u', 'U', 'Pb', 't', 'th', 't', 'm', 'f'.

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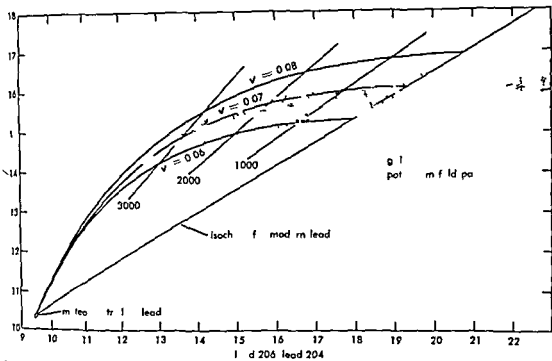


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Lead metallurgy

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Lead isotopes and magmatic differentiation
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one sample to another. The Mississippi Valley leads of Arkansas, Missouri, Illinois, Iowa, and Wisconsin have variable Pb^{207}/Pb^{206} ratios which range from 18.5 to 23. Several examples are known of variable isotopic composition in different parts of the same mine. Nonanomalous (ordinary) lead on the other hand does not display this variation giving almost the same isotopic composition throughout a mine or even a geologic province. Thus, some sort of localized mixing is indicated to be the cause of anomalous lead.

An occurrence of anomalous lead at Lake Athabasca, Saskatchewan is well studied and will be used to illustrate a solution to the problem. Uraninite in a pegmatite in the district is reliably dated by concordant lead ages at 1.9×10^9 years. Pitchblende of hydrothermal origin occurs widely and isotopic ages all discordant have been determined for 28 of these. A systematic study of the discordant pitchblende ages indicates that they could have been formed from a 1.9×10^9 year old uraninite by dissolving parts of it 1.1 to 1.2×10^9 years ago and again about 0.2×10^9 years ago transporting the uranium hydrothermally to new sites in veins and losing variable fractions of the accumulated radiogenic lead in the process. Three kinds of lead are found in lead ores: an ordinary lead and two kinds of anomalous lead. Example of their isotopic compositions are given in Table 1.

The ordinary galena may be used as a basis to calculate the ratios of excess or radiogenic Pb^{207} and Pb^{206} , the values of which appear in Table 1. It is also calculated that a uranium mineral formed 1.9×10^9 years ago would contain radiogenic lead with a Pb^{207}/Pb^{206} ratio of 0.17. 1.2×10^9 years ago and 0.2×10^9 years ago. Thus the uraninite pitchblendes and lead ores tell a consistent story: pitchblendes were formed 1.2×10^9 and 2×10^9 years ago from 1.9×10^9 year old uranium minerals, probably uraninite. Varying proportions of highly radiogenic lead separated from uranium during the formation of the pitchblendes, the freed radiogenic lead finding its way into lead ores which now contain anomalous lead. The mixing of radiogenic lead with ordinary lead might be expected to have varied considerably on a local scale which fits observation.

Other occurrences of pitchblendes together with lead ores having anomalous lead are the Colorado Plateaus and the Blind River district in Ontario north of Lake Huron. These districts are not yet

studied as completely as that at Lake Athabasca but a similar mechanism undoubtedly applies. The source of radiogenic lead for the anomalous Mississippi Valley leads has not yet been identified. Anomalous pitchblendes are observed and the Pb^{207}/Pb^{206} ratios are high along with the Pb^{207}/Pb^{206} ratio. Perhaps another mechanism applies.

Mention was made earlier of the fact that igneous leads plotted below the average curve for galenas in Fig. 2. The mode of formation of anomalous leads cited above would tend to produce just such a result if igneous leads represented uncontaminated ordinary lead. Highly radioactive minerals like uraninite contain lead with Pb^{207}/Pb^{206} ratios on the order of thousands and Pb^{207}/Pb^{206} ratios on the order of hundred. Mixing this lead with ordinary lead produces a lead which will plot above the curve for pure ordinary lead. At least part of the difference between the isotopic growth curves for lead in ores and in igneous rocks might be the result of this effect. It is more difficult to recognize anomalous leads when they do not have a negative model age—they can then only be recognized if regional studies have been made. This is not the case for many of the galenas shown in Fig. 2.

Lead isotopes in a granite. Another application of isotopic lead data to geochemical problems is illustrated by a study of the distribution of uranium, thorium, and lead isotopes in minerals of a Proterozoic granite from the Canadian Shield collected near Tory Hill, Ontario. Zircon contains lead which was entirely radiogenic, enabling the mineral to be dated accurately at 1.05×10^9 years. Perthite, plagioclase, and quartz contained lead which appeared to be entirely primary. Determination of the uranium, lead, and thorium lead ratios in perthite indicated that the ratios were so low that the isotopic composition of the lead would not have changed appreciably in the last 10 years if the mineral represented a closed system. The other minerals studied, sphene, apatite, and magnetite, had mixtures of primary and radiogenic lead. The composite rock was analyzed for uranium, thorium, and lead concentration and lead isotopic composition. From the age of the rock, it is possible to make material balance calculations to study possible migration of lead, uranium, and thorium within the rock. If each mineral has been a closed system, then the isotopic composition of lead calculated for the rock 1.05×10^9 years ago from the present-day uranium, thorium, and lead data should be the same as that found in the feldspar. This comparison is shown in Table 2. It is obvious that some type of migration has occurred. The leads in the feldspars have model ages of about 10 years, which suggests that they are contaminated with radiogenic lead and are anomalous. A large crystal of perthite from a neighboring pegmatite was found to contain ordinary lead with a model age of about 10 years. Several galenas with similar lead are also known from the district.

Table 1. Isotopic composition of lead from the Athabasca district

| Type | Atom % | | | Radiogenic Pb^{207}/Pb^{206} |
|-----------|---------------------|---------------------|---------------------|--------------------------------|
| | Pb^{207}/Pb^{206} | Pb^{207}/Pb^{206} | Pb^{207}/Pb^{206} | |
| Ordinary | 14.36 | 14.96 | 31.49 | |
| Anomalous | 40.01 | 19.36 | 37.10 | 0.17 |
| Anomalous | 43.5 | 18.7 | 35.7 | 0.12 |

tralasian Inst Mining and Met 162-163 267-292
1951 T R A Davey Vacuum dezinizing of de
silverized lead bullion *AIME Trans* 197 991-
997 1953 D Evers Debismuthizing by the Kroll
Betterton process *Z Fr bergbau u Metallhut*
tenu 2(5) 129-133 1949 H E Lee and D In
gvoldstad The modernization of Bunker Hill pre
sintering practices *AIME Trans* 206 1469-1473
1956

Leaf (botany)

Leaves are modified as aerial appendages which de
velop from stems at nodes (stem joints) and usu
ally have buds in their axils. See BUD (BOTANY).
STEM (BOTANY) In most plants leaves are flattened
in form although they may be needlelike as in
pine scalelike as in arbor vitae or nearly cylindri
cal as in onion. Leaves usually contain chlorophyll
and are the principal organs in which the impor
tant processes of photosynthesis and transpiration
occur. See CHLOROPHYLL. PHOTOSYNTHESIS.
PLANT WATER RELATIONS OF

Leaf parts A complete dicotyledon leaf (see
DICOTYLEDONEAE) consists of three parts: the ex
panded portion or blade, the petiole which sup
ports the blade, and a pair of stipules, small ap
pendages attached at the base of the petiole (Fig
1). Stipules may be green and bladelike as in pea
coarse rigid spines as in black locust sheaths as in
smartweed tendril like as in greenbrier or mere
temporary hairs or bristles as in lespedeza. Leaves
that have a blade and petiole but no stipules
are said to be exstipulate. Some leaves have no
parent petioles and are described as sessile. The
leaves of grasses have neither petioles nor stipules;
the blades are attached to the stem by an encir
cling sheath (see GRASS CROPS). At the junction of
the sheath and the blade is a collarlike structure
called the ligule. In pines needlelike leaves are
borne in fascicles (clusters of 2-5 rarely 1) at the
ends of short dwarf branches (see PINE).

Leaf margins The margin or edge of a leaf may
be entire (without indentations or teeth) serrate
(with sharp teeth pointing forward) or serru
late (finely serrate) dentate with coarse teeth
pointing outward or denticulate (finely dentate)
crenate or scalloped with broad rounded teeth un
dulate with a wavy margin incised cut into irreg

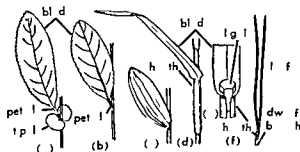


Fig 1 Leaf parts (a) Complete leaf (b) Enlarged stipule (c) Sessile leaf (d) Leaf of grass (e) Detail of base (f) Needlelike leaves of pine

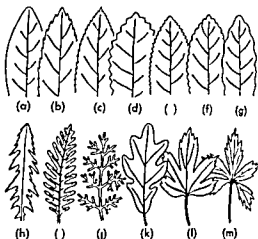


Fig 2 Leaf margins (a) Entire (b) Serrate (c) Serrulate (d) Dentate (e) Denticulate (f) Crenate (g) Undulate (h) Incised (i) Pinnatifid (j) Denticulate (k) Lobed (l) Cleft (m) Parted

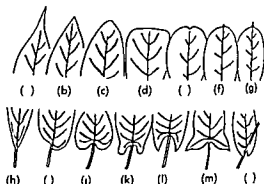


Fig 3 Leaf tips and bases (a) Acuminate (b) Acute (c) Obtuse (d) Truncate (e) Emarginate (f) Mucronate (g) Crenate (h) Crenate (i) Oblong (j) Auriculate (k) Sigmoidate (l) Hysteresis (m) Clasp

ular or jagged teeth or segments (if segments are narrow and pointed laciniate if directed backward runcinate) pinnatifid deeply pinnately parted (featherlike) dissected cut into numerous slender irregularly branching divisions (Fig 2).

When the blade is deeply cut into fairly large portions these are called lobes. The degree of such lobing may be designated by the following terms: lobed with sinuses usually not more than halfway from margin to midrib (midrib) or base and with lobes and sinuses more or less rounded cleft when incisions extend halfway or more from margin to midrib and especially when they are sharply parted cut so deeply that the sinuses extend almost to the midrib or base divided cut entirely to the midrib which makes a leaf compound.

Leaf tips and bases The tip of a leaf may be acuminate gradually tapering to a sharp point acute tapering more abruptly to a sharp point blunt or rounded tip truncate seeming to be cut off square or nearly so emarginate deeply notched at tip but not lobed mucronate abruptly tipped with a small short point cuspidate ending in a sharp rigid point (Fig 3).

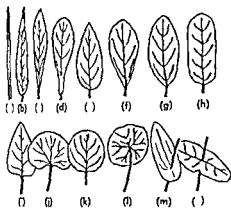


Fig 4 L f h p () L (b) L of l (c) Obl (d) Sp t t () O t (f) Ob vat (g) Ell pt (h) Obl g (i) D lt d (j) R f rm (k) O bcl (l) P lt t (m) P rf l t () Co t

The b e f th bl de m y be cu eat wedg haped oblique, th tw d s of th b e n equ l c d t h art h ped b e with co pic i u late with a m llea like l be n ruber de of p t le agitat rr w h p d w th par f ba l l bes turned i rd h t te hal b d sh ped th b l l b tur ed otwa d l y g h ile d p r tly i t g the tem

Leaf shapes A le f may be l n r lo nd arr with th des p all l r n rlv o (Fg 4) l lat n r w b t t pe g f r m ba e to ard pe b l n e l te br d t p taper g t d ba p tult h o d a d bt at ap x t pe ng to b e t gg hap d h d est d b se b te re of at br ade t t and p x ell pt b dest t m d d l d t pe ng l ghtly t b dly r d d ba nd per bl g som what e ta g l r w th e ly straight des and nd d b e d p d l t d triangular r n f r m k d n y h p d br ad than l g b l a r e s l o n a l y p l t e sh l d h ped u lly a r l l e f w th p t l e at hed a ne th nt f the l we f pe f l t e h ung th t m appa tly p g thr gh t n t n wh h th b s f two p p o s t e l e s c m t h e fu ed a r u d the st m

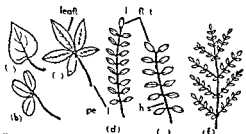


Fig 5 Leaf typ () S m pl (b) T f l t () P l t (c) E ve p t l w (d) O dd p t l y m p d (e) D m p d

Leaf types A leaf is s mple when it has b t one blade c mp nd when the blad is d ided int t o or more ep rate part called leaflet trifol o late if it ha three leaf l ts (Fig 5) palmately omp u d if leaflets org nate fr m a comm n point at end f peti le pinn tely comp d if le flet are b rne on the rach (c nti ust n of peti ole) odd p n nate if u h a comp u d leaf is te m nated by a leaflet e en p i ate w hout t r m n al leaflet d c mpou d (l p n nate) if twice mp u d

Leaf venation The arrangement of the vein or a cul r l undles of a le f i called e at n (Fig 6) The e re three ba ic types par l l l the ma n n ext nd ng thr ugh m t of the blade in a par l l l manner as in gra e l l e and mo t mon oyled n (s e MONOCOTYLEDONAE) net the m in in br n h i g f r m ng an irregu r net work (p n n tely if f l r like p l mately if fan like) as i m t d cotyled s dichot mou f rked ch ve n d i ng at i tervals int sm ller em of appr ximately eq al s i e s in m st ferns and i g n k g Se FILICALES GINKGOALES

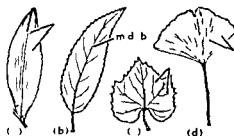


Fig 6 L f t () P l l l (b) N t p t () N t p l m t (d) D h t m

Leaf arrangement (phyllotaxy) Lea s oc u n a t m n a d f i t f i e d r d e acc rd ng t p e c t (Fg 7) They us ally pp e f thr w y s l n t f o l y n l a f o c u r at a d opp t e f two lea es appear t a nod opp t e ide nd wh led (e r t c l l t e) if m re th n tw appe Al te n a t l e e a t e u ally a ged p r lly n the stem if they oc u r n but two ws th y a e 2 k e d i f n f i e r w 5 n k d In a l s t r o f f l w sch f l w e a s e n r m lly i th a il (armp t) of a l f th s leaf h w e s u lly mu h e d c d i n s nd alled br ct The b c t i s d t sub t d th fl w e S FLOWER (BOTANY)

Leaf surface S fa e s of l p de m ny char t d n d e t f i a t A s f a e s gla b f t m o th f e from h glau s f d with a wh t h w xy mat al o blo m c b s i f r gh ha h to th t h pube c e t g l t e m f hair of any k d a p p d t glab u pube ul nt w th y f i d w l k e h t m n t e with m tted woolly h llou w th l ng oft h ggy h rs h t e o ed w th h r t e t f f i ha a d h p d d with b tly h r hly t f f ha

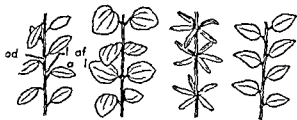


Fig 7 Leaf arrangement (l to r) alternate opposite whorled alternate 2-ranked

Leaf texture The texture may be described as succulent when fleshy and juicy hyaline if thin and almost wholly transparent chartaceous papery opaque but thin scarious thin and dry appearing hriveled and coriaceous tough thickish and leathery

Leaf duration Leaves may be fugacious falling nearly as soon as formed deciduous falling at the end of the growing season (see DECIDUOUS PLANTS) marcescent withering at the end of the growing season but not falling until toward spring or persistent remaining on the stem for more than one season on the plant thus being evergreen See EVERGREEN PLANTS PLANT ORGANS PLANT PHYSIOLOGY PLANT TAXONOMY [N A]

LEAF ANATOMY

In a true leaf the veins are continuous with one or more vascular strands of the stele the primary vascular cylinder of the stem (see STELE VASCULAR BUNDLES) The strands that connect the leaf with the vascular system of the stem are the leaf traces A part of such a leaf trace passes through the outer stem tissue or cortex (see CORTEX PLANT) Above the point of divergence of the leaf trace from the stele an interruption of the vascular tissue occurs and this parenchyma filled area is the leaf gap (see PARENCHYMA) Although there are flattened leaflike structures among the lower plants such as algae liverwort and mosses these are not true leaves because they lack a well defined vascular system (see ALGAE HEPATICAE MUSCI) Some of the primitive vascular plants have microphylls (small leaflike organs) but these have a single unbranched leaf trace and there is no leaf gap in the stele

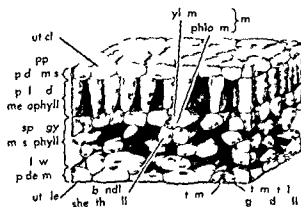


Fig 8 The cross section of a leaf showing the various tissues

Internal structure in relation to function The foliage leaf represents the chief photosynthetic component of most vascular land plants (Fig 8) Although leaves vary greatly in size shape and complexity they consist of the same three tissues as does the stem dermal or surface layer vascular including the xylem and phloem or conductive tissues and the ground tissues parenchyma and sclerenchyma (see EPIDERMIS PLANT PHLOEM SCLERENCHYMA XYLEM) In the leaf however the arrangement and modifications of the tissues have obviously evolved along lines favorable for photosynthesis within various habitats and climates (see EVOLUTION ORGANIC) The ground tissue or mesophyll of the leaf is primarily chlorenchyma this is tissue with cells containing chloroplasts (see CELL PLASTIDS) With a maze of intercellular spaces in the chlorenchyma each cell is exposed to an internal moist atmosphere The sheetlike distribution of the chlorenchyma in the blade exposes each individual cell to light The vascular tissue is an intricately branched network of veins embedded in a midplane within the chlorenchyma

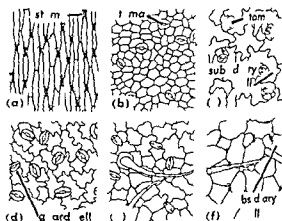


Fig 9 Surface view of the lower epidermis of leaves showing distribution and position of stomata and relative size and shape of subsidiary cells The dotted line shows the outline of guard cells or subsidiary cells the area enclosed from surface view by overlapping cells (a) *Iris* (b) *Vitis* (grape) (c) *S. dum* (d) *Cap. cum* (e) *Lycopersico* (tomato) (f) *O. als* Note that the dotted line indicates that the stomatal guard cells are not in the same plane as the surrounding cells and are not in the same plane as the surrounding cells (from K. E. Plant Anatomy Wiley 1953)

Every cell of the mesophyll therefore is relatively close to mass movement of water and solutes through the xylem and phloem of the veins—water and mineral ions move chiefly through the xylem dissolved foods chiefly through the phloem See PLANT MINERAL NUTRITION OF PLANT TRANSLOCATION (ORGANIC SOLUTES) The nongreen compartment epidermis is similar to the epidermis of stems and other exposed plant organs (Fig 9) The stomatal guard cell alone among the epidermal cells contains chloroplast and the stomata constitute openings in the otherwise continuous epidermis the

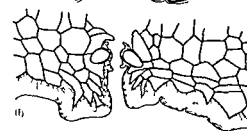
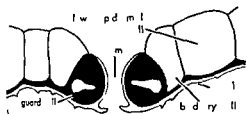


Fig 10 Tra verse t f t m t th l w
pd m f l av h w g d g f l w
d unk p d f th g d l l t t b
se ry p d l l N t th t th t l f m
p russo l dg t th t m t l p g
() P (pe h) (b) P st (p rs p) () S l m
(petato) (cd) H d (E gl h vy) () M (b)
() E y (Ad p d f m K E Pl t A t my
Wley 1953)

ll of wh h e d by w y f t t y c t
l (Fig 10) Th the pd rm t ans l e t
t p oofed b t part lly p f ated g
th gh h h l ght p t t but th gh wh h
th d f n f w t p r d ga l m ted
Thre g ce p p c p lly th gh th to

mata The opening and closing of stomata within the epidermis of many leaves results essentially from light and temperature. During the day, when the rate of photosynthesis is high, the guard cells take up water and swell, opening the stomata. At night, when the rate of photosynthesis is low, the guard cells lose water and shrink, closing the stomata. The opening and closing of stomata is controlled by the guard cells, which are surrounded by subsidiary cells. The guard cells are thickened on the inner side, and this causes them to curve outwards when they take up water, thus opening the stomata. The subsidiary cells are thinner and more elongated than the guard cells, and they help to maintain the shape of the stomatal complex.

In well developed broad leaves, the chlorophyllous cells of the mesophyll are typically columnar and arranged parallel with each other, but with their long dimension at right angles to the surface of the leaf. The subsidiary cells, on the contrary, are elongated and are oriented with their long dimension chiefly in the radial plane (the plane of the leaf parallel with the epidermal layer). The great proportion of photosynthetic surface is due to the palisade cells, which are columnar and arranged in two rows on either side of the stomata. The guard cells are small and are situated at the base of the stomatal complex.

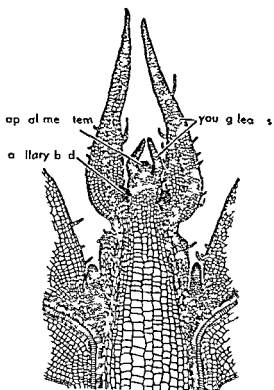


Fig 11 L g t d l c t th gh h t p (r m
l b d) h w g t g th d l p m t f f l g
l f m th p l m t m (F M E N T
H C S m p d L H T H y f t b k f b y
d H p 1953)

spongy mesophyll and dermal tissues because these are the tissues having consistent lateral contiguity. There is only limited lateral contiguity among the palisade cells.

Among leaves in which guttation (secretion of water from the tip and margins of leaves) is known to take place, specialized tissues called hydathodes occur near the vein endings in the blade tips and margin. Most leaf movements are caused by irregular growth rates (see PLANT GROWTH) but certain reversible movements are caused by changes in water content of cells within specialized structures such as the pulvinus (a swelling at the base of the petiole). Ergastic substances (waste products and crystals of mineral elements) accumulate in various living cells of foliage leaves. With leaf abscission (fall) these waste materials are eliminated from the living plant.

Leaf development. Each foliage leaf, whether simple or compound, arises as a leaf primordium (a protrusion composed of relatively superficial cells) at the apical meristem or region of cell division at the shoot tip (see MERISTEM APICAL). As

the leaf primordium elongates and thickens by numerous cell divisions, a primordial axis forms, which later differentiates in part as midrib and petiole (see MITOSIS). On either side of the axillary marginal meristems containing marginal and submarginal initials give rise to a number of cell layers from which the blade tissues differentiate.

In woody plants, tiny folded leaves with recognizable shapes can be distinguished in winter buds. These young undifferentiated leaves develop in buds during the growing season preceding the winter. Thus, in the spring, as the buds open and the bud axis elongates forming the new twig, the tiny leaves unfold and expand to their mature size within a few days. Although during this surge of spring growth a limited amount of cell division occurs, the major activity is concerned with cell enlargement and differentiation. In some woody plants, additional leaves arise and mature during the same growing season. Foliage leaves consist mainly of primary tissues (tissues that arise from the apical meristem or the embryonic stem tip) and, except for some ferns and a few seed plants,

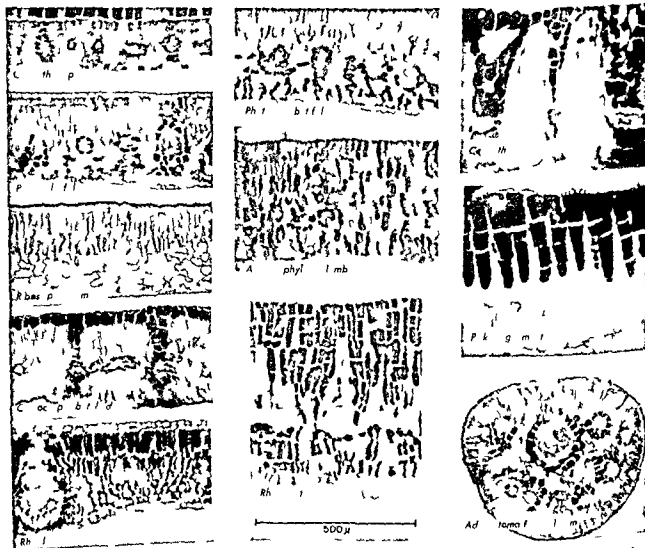


Fig. 12. Transverse sections of the xeromorphic leaf blades of eleven species of evergreen chaparral shrubs from the Santa Monica coastal mountain range of California. Although the mesophyll of most of these leaves

is predominantly palisade the structure is bifacial to subequal and central. Note the relatively thin epidermal layers.

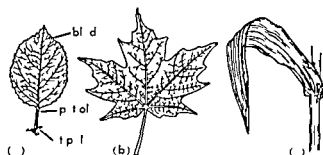


Fig 13 Simple leaves illustrating the arrangement of prominent veins. Blades (a) and (b) have the netted venation (a) Pinnately veined leaf of apple (b) Palmately veined leaf of sugar maple (c) Parallel venation of a corn leaf (From C. L. Wilson and W. E. L. M. S. Botany, 2nd ed. Holt 1958)

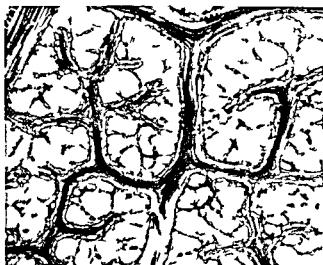


Fig 14 Photomicrograph of the vascular network of *Ficus elastica*. The tissue was cut from a midrib of the blade parallel with the surface of the leaf.

Cylindrical leaves the stomata are distributed over the entire surface. Stomatal frequencies have been reported for a number of species and they range from 14 to 1540 per mm.

An epidermal appendage (trichome or hairlike structure) may be a simple outgrowth of an epidermal cell or a unicellular or multicellular structure. The separate cells may be relatively undifferentiated or secretory (glandular) in nature (see SECRETORY STRUCTURES PLANT). Idioblasts (cells markedly different in shape or function from other cells within the same tissue) and cells with crystals and other inclusions as well as trichomes are constant features of certain species.

Mesophyll In bifacial leaves (those with dissimilar tissues above and below) the chlorenchyma consists of one or more layers of palisade cells near the upper (adaxial) surface of the blade and one or more layers of spongy mesophyll cells in the lower (abaxial) portion. There is relatively little lateral continuity among the palisade cells although some of the cells are tangent along portions of their length. Palisade cells subtend epidermal or hypodermal cells and are contiguous with the

spongy mesophyll cells below. In most temperate omorphic leaves the spongy mesophyll includes large intercellular spaces and its cells are oriented chiefly within the paradermal (horizontal) plane of the blade. If the cells are branched one or more arms are extended within the paradermal plane. In the midplane of the blade which includes the intricate system of minor veins the spongy mesophyll is in the form of continuous nets of living cells closely integrated with the main vein. The intercellular space system in the entire mesophyll tissue of measured leaves accounts for 35-71% of the entire blade volume. Although the greater volumes of space are within the spongy mesophyll, larger internal surfaces (cell wall surface lining the intercellular spaces) are exposed within the palisade mesophyll. Among measured leaves the internal exposed surface is 4.6-31 times as great as the external blade surface of the same leaves. In a few species the palisade cells are H-shaped or U-shaped; in other species the columnar cells are laterally contiguous by adjoining protuberances. The number of layers of palisade may vary in leaves on the same plant. In lateral blades (blades with similar tissues on both sides) the mesophyll consists entirely of palisade cells or palisade cells occur in both adaxial and abaxial portions on either side of a midregion of spongy mesophyll. In all palisade leaf the cells in the midregion of the blade have some lateral continuity. In some foliage leaves the palisade and spongy mesophyll are not highly contrasting tissues. The degree of contrast between the closely packed vertically oriented palisade cells and the more diffusely spaced laterally oriented spongy mesophyll cells varies with the species as well as the environment.

Vascular system The two main patterns of venation (arrangement of the prominent veins) in broad foliage leaves are netted and parallel (Fig 13). Most dicotyledons have netted veins and the most prominent veins are arranged pinnately (one midvein with secondary veins diverging from it) or palmately (several large veins spreading out from the base of the blade). Among the larger veins an intricate network of minor veins is well distributed within a median plane of the mesophyll (Fig 14). Most monocotyledons have parallel veins (main veins arranged longitudinally within a linear blade) interconnected by smaller veins.

The primary and secondary veins along with associated mesophyll tissues form prominent ridges (vein ribs) on the abaxial side of many foliage leaves. The midrib region of such leaves is similar in structure to the petiole; it consists primarily of one or more vascular bundles of xylem and phloem (the xylem on the adaxial side) and supporting tissue. Xylem or phloem fibers or both may be present and some of the ground tissue on either side of the vein proper may be in the form of chlorenchyma or tissue consisting of elongate cells with unevenly thickened walls (see CHLOENCHYMA). The parenchyma associated with the main vein has rela-

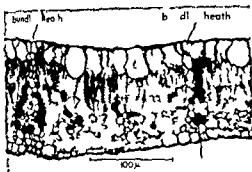


Fig 15 Transverse section through bundle sheath cells of leaf showing bundle sheath cells.

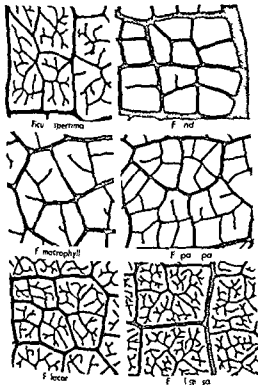


Fig 16 Diagram of stomata and guard cells showing various structures and their functions.

no chl ropla ts However a few xeromorphs the bundle sheath the principal chl r phyll bear a g t ue In many d tyled nsl ndle h aht te on (panels of p enchyma cells) e te d fr m the bundle sheath to ne r both ep d m l layer S ce th l ndle h aht ext ns u ally ha e l til chl rophyll they appear like p r tti n betwe n block of ph t ynthesis m ophyll within the blade B dl heath ten : ns e of frequ nt o r e ce i d cidu u f l age l a e The min r e amify thr ough the m dplane of the me- phyll arrou mple p ttern (Fig 16) In the p ra de mal pla e inter n ecting minor ein may f rm l ed n t or they may be dendriform (ar anged n ntri at bra chng y tem) with nu me u e n ding [s p]

B b l g a p h y S e P L A N T A N A T O M Y

Leaf hopper

Any of numer u spec es f the insect f mily Cicad l l a e o der H moptera This i e y l a g e family and incl des an uncert in numb l spe es f m l l lnder i ect f eq ently trikngly ma ked in brill nt c l rs They re dist g hed from m lar f m l ty the d ttle r w f spines the h d t f a their wing meet in a deeply n erted V a d t nd b y o d th tip of the b d o r e the eyes ar u ally large



R l f hopp Emp a l ght 2 x n IF m E L P l m F l d b k I N I I H s t r y M c G w H l 1949)

Alth gh each pe es i ge er lly r t icted n its h b t t and the pl nt n whi h t f eds, ther a e leath p p e s i rtually e ery s t at whe pl nt g ow

S a l a e f e on m c m p r t a n feed ng ar ty f f l d nd gard rop s M ny k w s h p hoot l e n cotto S H O M O P T E R A [J D B]

Learning theories

A f i l d f p s y h l o g y e m b r c i g h a b i s k i l l m e m e s a d p b l m s o l n g i n c l d g t h e q u i t o n r e t e n t m e n t l i z a t o Theories f l e a r n g h a b e e l e d b y p s y c h o l g t w k g t h t i m u l e p o c d t e d r f l e x , o e p t d t h g u r a w a r e s n e p t S e M E M O R Y P R O B L E M S O L V I N G (P S Y C H O L O G Y) S E N S O R Y L E A R N I N G V E R B A L L E A R N I N G S t i m u l u s r e s p o n s e c o n d i t i o n i n g e p m e t h y l d e d r t n l w f u l r l t h p u h a f b l t i m t r a l b e t w e e t m l e f f e s o f a t e i p n t t p n q u t p t a e u s r y f e s p t n g h t f o l l w g e d u t i t h o g h e x t n t n p o c e e a n d s o

by ly f w hl pl ts The epiderm l ell n h thi ght m jor e e f i n l y e l o g t t h i s a x T h m n s t a t a m b e d d e d i t h e m e o p h y l l e r n t f x y l m n d p h l m l m n t s c l y w r r d e d b y b d l e h t l h t h o f t h i n a l e d p e n c h y m a c e l l (F g 15) T h e r e n p p o r t u s b o t t h m s S o m e s e n d g e n t f g l e t h d t y l m l e m e n t p h l m n d a b d l t t h B d l h t r y i m p l x t y a d m a y h l y f e w

on It is assumed that these relationships can serve as the basis for predicting more complex habit phenomena such as those involved in learning a language or operating a typewriter. Application of conditioning principles is not solely by analogy but the effort is made to predict effects that superficially are unlike the relationships used in prediction. For example, the fact that items in the middle of a list are more difficult to memorize than items at the beginning or the end is not reflected in simple conditioned reflex experiments. Yet it is possible to use relationships from these experiments to predict this fact. C. I. Hull was a leading theorist in this field and his proposals have been extended and modified by N. E. Miller and K. W. Spence.

Hull recommended the hypothetico-deductive method. That is, he preferred to set up a small set of postulates which are relationships from simple conditioning experiments usually empirically established. From these he proceeded to deduce more complex phenomena as theorems. These theorems if confirmed by experiments tend to confirm the postulates. In order to simplify the total number of postulates, he departed somewhat from purely empirical relationships in order to infer intervening variables as simplifying constructs. These intervening variables given such names as drive or habit strength lie between the observed stimulus or input variables and the measured response or output variables. Hull's most basic formula became

$$sE_R = H_R \times D$$

in which each of the terms is an intervening variable. Thus sE_R is the inferred reaction potential which if above threshold leads to the measurable overt response R to the stimulus S . This reaction potential is some multiplicative function of habit strength (sH_R) acquired as a result of repeatedly rewarded experiences and the motivational conditions or drive (D) active at the time. Thus habit is activated into behavior only when the drive conditions are adequate. Habit strength depends upon rewarding circumstances known as reinforcements. The complete formula for response evocation includes a number of factors in addition to habit and drive; for example, stimulus intensity and the amount of reward used in prior reinforcement.

B. F. Skinner also bases his interpretations on the data from conditioning experiments and accepts reinforcement as the basic operation for response strengthening. He takes a more positivistic approach than Hull but disclaims the notion of intervening variables and refuses to use the hypothetico-deductive method. He has been successful in demonstrating a great deal of lawfulness in learned behavior using a variety of schedules of intermittent reinforcement that is reward on only a predetermined fraction of the trials. In Skinner's spot pecking experiments with pigeons the bird receives food reinforcement following pecking at a

target but the food is delivered only once every 10 minutes. The target at which the pigeon peck changes slowly so that it serves as a kind of clock. The pigeon begins to respond 7-8 minutes following prior reinforcement and is responding more than 10 times per second by the time food reinforcement is delivered (Fig. 1). While his basic work has been on lever pressing by rats and spot pecking by pigeons, Skinner has had some success in applying his analysis also to verbal behavior, school room learning and the behavior of psychotic patients.

There is also a nonreinforcement variety of learning theory according to which the basic relationship for habit formation is merely the contiguous presence of a stimulus with a response (Fig. 2). A sophisticated theory derived from the contiguity principle has been proposed by F. R. Guthrie and given mathematical expression by W. K. Estes and C. J. Burke. The mathematical model is based on the assumption that the learner is sensitive to some fraction of the total stimulus complex available to him and that this fraction becomes attached or conditioned to the response that occurs. Hence as a response is repeated an increasing fraction of the possible stimulus components will have been conditioned to it so that the response becomes increasingly probable on later trials. The model describing this increasing probability makes use of the mathematics of set theory and is known as a stochastic model (see STOCHASTIC PROCESS). The model and its parameters are logically specified and the parameters are then empirically derived by curve fitting (see BIOMETRICS, BIOPHYSICS, MATHEMATICS). Considerable success has been achieved especially with relatively simple probability learn-

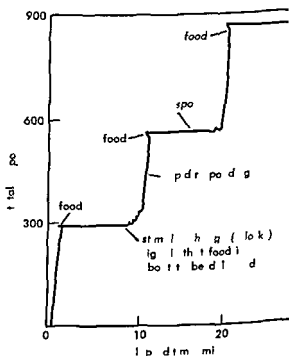
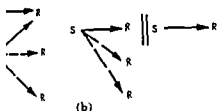


Fig. 1 Contingency model of pecking behavior (Adapted from B. F. Skinner, *Verbal Behavior*, 1957, p. 100). The graph shows the number of pecks (Y-axis) versus time in minutes (X-axis). The pecking rate increases as time progresses, reflecting the reinforcement schedule.



N f m t d f m t S-R th o-
IN e f r c t S-R th ry C dnt ed t m
J ke R th th R R b c th r
s (S) c R t c th p f S
is called thg ty th ry b c th c
f S d R th t d d t pod
soc h b t w th m (b) R f m t S-R
C d t d t m (S) k R t h g h
bly th R d R (th p ts
ayl bec se R h b fll w d f w d d
f d) by S₀ l d g t R₀ g l t m l s
epo se

is: gue gwh h of tw lghts wllc me n
the peumenter ues r d m der but
e hlt elat ely mo e f eq ent tha the

them u l model a e ot l m t t th c
ny t pret tu in fact by p o v d g tra
it qu t sth y m y e l that some of
d t n t o n betw n r e f c m e t a d n u
w t p e t t n s e c e n t f l l y u n m p o t a t
r a t i e s o f m o d e l h b e e p i d e d b y
L B h d F M t l l r F R t l e d o t h
l l f t h e w p o s t t h u f m t o d l f y
s b i o a o a t n t h i and e o m m o l y
p e d i g e t h s t i m l s e p s S-R th
s S o m e S-R p s y h l g t h a e d e v t e d m e
e m b o d i e d c m p l e h m a l a g i n t r e
i f m m z a t i o n p e r c e p t l m t k i l l
w e e x p r e s s t r e l l w f l p e r t a t h
a l e v l o f c o m p l t y u h a s e r l p o t i n
w t s s h o r t c i t t g o p l c k p p g t e d e
s u n l i t n d u n l i t e f f e c t T h w h
n o e t u l w r i t i n g i n l d e t a t e m e n t s d i g
m l t h l e v l o f c m p l t y e e m m n l y k n o w n
f a t a l t f w h m A L l r i A W M l
a d B J U d r w o o d c n t m p r y e p e
t a t

Cognitive concept S t p p o t o t o t h e S-R
w o n t s e a u m b e f p s y c h o l g i t w h e m
i z e t h m p r t n f g t f t s n l e r n
z t h t s p e c t l d t i l p o e
u n c i f m r u m t h b i s T h y s l e
i g n t m l y h a o f d i o n e d f l e
u t a a g n f l l w g p o c e w h c h t l r e
o m h w k w w a t l d t o w h t d c n
n o d f y h b e h r d n g l y W h t l e r n e d
n n l y l k f l l w n g m p t h l k t h e
t h i n g i a m e m t p t t e n f i e d b y h b t A l
d o g h t p g e o n e p e n f g l r e s e d t
l l t t f m n t t h e o r y t h y l s p e t
n a d p t t t t h e p t t e d a t f t h t i m

l t i n i n t i m e t h e u o f t h e c l k b y t h e p i g e o n
i s h e r e t w i t h c o g t i v e t h e o r y C o g n i t i v e t h e o r y
r i t t e n d t u e c h o n c e p t s a i n s i g h t o r e x
p e c t a t i o n w h e n t h e y d e s c r i b e t h e c n t r o l o f b e
h a i r T h e n a m a a t e d w i t h t h e c g n i t i v e
p o t n i c l u d e t h e C e t l t p s y c h o l g i t e s p e c
c a l l y W l f g n g K h l r a n d K u r t L e w a n d o m e
n e b e h a i o r i t f r i t a n c e E d w a r d C T l m a n
a n d K a r l S L a h l e y

W l l e f a t m e t h e i n t e r t i n l e h a i r a l l a w
o h a d w e d i n t e r e s t i n n e u r p h y i o l g i c a l c o
r e l a t e o f l e a r n i n g s i e 1920 t h e r e h b e e n r e
n e w e d n t e r t n b r n p r c e u n d e r l y i n g l e r n
i n g T h u f a r t h e p e i f c e u r l h a n g e s r e l a t e d
t o r n i g a e u k n o w n S e P s y c h o l o g y P h y s i o
L O G I C A L A N D E X P E R I M E N T A L [F R H]

B i b l i o g r a p h y E R H i l g a r d T h e i o f L n
g 2 d e d 196 J A M c C o o c h a n d A L I r o
T h e P s y c h o l o g y f H M a L l r n g 2 d e d 192
R S W d r t h a n d H S c h l b e g E x p r i m t l
P s y c h o l o g y r e d 194

Least action principle of

L i k e H a m i l t o n p r i n c i p l e t h e p r n c i p l e o f l e t
a t n s a a r a t n l s t e m t t h a t f r m a b a i
f o m w h c h t h e q a t n o f m t i n f a l a c a l
d y m a l s y s t e m m y b e d e d u e d (s e H A M I L T O N ' S
P R I N C I P L E) C o n s i d e r a m e c h a n i c a l s y s t e m
d e s c r i b e d b y c o o r d i n a t e s q_1, q_2, \dots, q_n a n d t h e
a n n u l l y j o i n t e m o m e n t a p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n (s e
H A M I L T O N ' S E Q U A T I O N S O F M O T I O N) T h e a c t i o n S
a s o a t e d w i t h a e g m n t o f t h e t r a j e c t o r y o f t h e
s y s t e m i s d e f i n e d b y

$$S = \int \sum p_i dq_i \quad (1)$$

w h e r e t h e i n t e g r a l i s e v a l u a t e d l o n g t h e g e n
e r m e t o f t h e t r a j e c t o r y T h e a t o r i o f t h e
t n l y w h t h e t t l e g y E o n r e d T h e
p r i n c i p l e o f l e a c t i o n s t a t e s t h a t t h e t r a j e c t o r y
f o l l o w s t h e p a t h w h i c h m a k e s t h e a c t i o n S
s t a t o n a r y r e l t o t h e e a b y w h c h t h e b t w n t h e
m e c a n f i g u r a t i o n d e f i n e d b y t h e e g y h s
t h e m e c a n t a n t a l u T h p l e s m a n m d
a s l y t h e t t a r y p o p e r t y i s e q u a l e d I t a
m a n n u m p r i n c i p l e i s f i n e l y s h o r t b u t f i n e
e g m e t o f t h e t r a j e c t o r y (s e M I N I M A L P R I
C I P L E S)

L e t

$$S + \Delta S = \int \sum (p_i + \delta p_i) (dq_i + \delta q_i) \quad (2)$$

w h e r e $p_i + \delta p_i$ a s o a l l y c o n j u g a t e t o $q_i + \delta q_i$
 δq_i N e g l e t t i n g e d r d e t e r m s

$$\Delta S = \int \sum (p_i \delta q_i + \delta p_i dq_i) - \int \sum (\delta p_i dq_i - \delta q_i dp_i) \quad (3)$$

w h e n i n t e g r a t i n g b y p a r t h a s b e e n m a d e t h e
i n t e g r a t d p t s n h g

T h e i n t e g r a l ΔS r e q u i r e s t h a t n t g r e d t o b e
p e r f e c t d f f i n e l y o f a q u a n t i t y w h o d
i t h T h c o e f f i c i e n t s o f t h e r a t i o n s

δq_j δp_j need not vanish separately because the variations are not independent the varied q s and p s necessarily being canonically conjugate

$$\sum_j (\delta p_j dq_j - \delta q_j dp_j) = dU(q, p) \quad (4)$$

$$\text{where} \quad \delta p_j = \frac{\partial U}{\partial q_j} \quad \delta q_j = -\frac{\partial U}{\partial p_j} \quad (5)$$

Writing $U = -H \delta t$ leads to Hamilton's equations of motion

$$p_i = -\frac{\partial H}{\partial q_i} \quad \dot{q} = \frac{\partial H}{\partial p_i} \quad (6)$$

The quantity $H(q, p)$ known as the Hamiltonian function does not contain the time explicitly because $U(q, p)$ cannot be a function of the time as the end times are not fixed and in general will vary as the path is varied. Thus the principle is useful only for conservative systems where H is constant.

If $H(q, p)$ consists of a part H_2 quadratic in the momenta and a part H_0 independent of the momenta then

$$\begin{aligned} S &= \int_{t_1}^{t_2} \sum_i p_i \dot{q}_i dt \\ &= \int_{t_1}^{t_2} \sum_i p_i \frac{\partial H}{\partial p_i} dt \\ &= 2 \int_{t_1}^{t_2} H_2 dt \end{aligned}$$

by Euler's theorem on homogeneous functions. Usually H_2 is the kinetic energy of the system so that the principle of least action may be written

$$\Delta \int_{t_1}^{t_2} 2T dt = \Delta \int_{t_1}^{t_2} 2(E - V) dt = 0$$

where V is the potential energy.

The principle of least action derives much importance from the fact that it is the action which is quantized in the quantum form of the theory. Planck's constant is the quantum of action. See QUANTUM THEORY, NONRELATIVISTIC [P.M.S.]

Bibliography. See LAGRANGE'S EQUATIONS.

Least squares method of

A method due originally to A. M. Legendre of obtaining the best values (the ones with least error) of unknown quantities supposed to satisfy a system of linear equations of the form

$$\begin{aligned} M_{11}a_1 + M_{12}a_2 + \dots + M_{1m}a_m &= b_1 \\ M_{21}a_1 + M_{22}a_2 + \dots + M_{2m}a_m &= b_2 \\ \vdots &\vdots \\ M_{n1}a_1 + M_{n2}a_2 + \dots + M_{nm}a_m &= b_n \end{aligned}$$

where $n > m$. Since there are more equations than unknowns the system is said to be overdetermined. Furthermore the values obtained for the unknowns by solving a given selection m in number of the equation will differ from the values obtained by solving another selection of equations. In the physical situation the b_i are measured quantities, the M_j are known (or assumed) quantities, and the a are to be adjusted to their best values.

Consider a simple example. A quantity y of interest is supposed (perhaps for theoretical reasons) to be a linear function of an independent variable x . For a series of selected values x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n of x one measures values y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n of y . The expected relation is

$$\begin{aligned} x_1\alpha + \beta &= y_1 \\ x_2\alpha + \beta &= y_2 \\ x_3\alpha + \beta &= y_3 \end{aligned}$$

and the problem is to find the best values of α and β that is respectively the slope and intercept of the line which graphically represents the function. The best values of α and β in the least squares sense are obtained by writing

$$\eta = y - (x\alpha + \beta)$$

and asserting that

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \eta^2$$

shall be minimized with respect to α and β that is that

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha} \sum_{i=1}^n \eta^2 &= 0 \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial \beta} \sum_{i=1}^n \eta^2 &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

This leads to the two equations

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha \sum_{i=1}^n x_i + n\beta - \sum_{i=1}^n y_i &= 0 \\ \alpha \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 + \beta \sum_{i=1}^n x_i - \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

which may be solved for α and β . For m rather than two unknowns the generalization is obvious in principle although the labor of solution may be great if m is large unless a high speed electronic computer is available.

It should be noted that the measurements y in the example have all been assumed to be equally good. If it is known that the measurements are of variable quality a weight may be attached to each value of y . The least squares equations are readily modified to take this into account.

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha \sum_{i=1}^n u_i x_i + \beta \sum_{i=1}^n u_i - \sum_{i=1}^n u_i y_i &= 0 \\ \alpha \sum_{i=1}^n u_i x_i^2 + \beta \sum_{i=1}^n u_i x_i - \sum_{i=1}^n u_i x_i y_i &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

where u_i is the weight of measurement y_i .

The least squares equations can be shown to lead to the most probable (in the statistical sense) values of the unknowns under a variety of assumptions about the measurements and their weights. In application in the physical sciences where it is rarely possible to show that one's interpretation satisfies all or even any of the assumptions. However the condition may be approximately satisfied.

an in tan s, and the meth d w dely used
re se of its con sence The empir c le ult t
at th k wu so d termed l ad t excell t
representati s of the data n the usual e S e
least fitt c [at H H]

Bibliography A G W thng and J Geffner
'en nt of E p rim nt l Data 1943

Leather and fur processing

Leather a d f s ha e be in c t nuo produc
r l r th n almo t ny othe mat ial yet are
all n que m yp ope tes a d are m ng the
most co pl x n hem try d te hn l gy Al
th gh th m ha m of ta nng s n t yet u de
and compl tlv h m c l a d phy cal ntr ls
s co form ty of p o d c ts

Th hdes nd k: f m which lath s a e
un d th the c pti n f the r pile f des
(v n es, lard a d c ood les) ar the p ri h
bl hyp o d t of the m e t i n d u t y Th e m t
w d ly empl yed l ted: T bl l Les er b t
still ta ge, mbe s f hor ch des d kin of ep
tles, tr h a d c m l e ta ned a a al ble
Furs e the p m p o d ts f t apper and breed
ers as a c seq c p o d c t depend la gely
on dem nd

About 80% f all leath r prod ed ed f r
shoes, d les m unt f cl thing h db g
lg g ta m belt g m h cal g od
p r f mes, blif ld d keyca es F s e
ood f luxury garm ts In a n leathe s lso
a lux ry m t l bec u if all th w ld p pu
la e ld aff d hoe th l ther s ppl w uld
be gro s l deq te

les l l th r a d f d p d p m rly n
th urbe tva d feel d e d ly n h m c l
d phy c l p o p rtes T bl 2 umm ze p r p
rtes f p r pile the Th x l l e t b
n es t e fle i g l f e d m s n l tability
d p o p rme b lity n t ble

Spec l l th r s ch a h m s (l t n ed)
p o sses high wat b p t n d buff l d aw
hd p o sse gr t b r s t c

Bre se hdes nd k l ble d ubje t
to p r l a t n p p m n f p es rva t n a e
esse t l Aft cool g t m e s m al he t nd
h g t m e blood th y p ked e
f l l w th l n dry l t m m ed b a d
th e d ned Th y be sh p p d l l er th
l l d h d f l t 2 y a s th r d
un, nd l g unde refrig t n S n o had
dr g used a n l t r n t l alt in em te
n s, but th le th r ly f t p qu lty Be

T bl 1 Animal used for le the

| A | l | W Id pop l ion | A l k l l | |
|--------------|---|-------------------|-------------|--------------|
| | | | W l l | U sed St les |
| Ca le calf | | 813 000 000 | 1 000 000 | 0 000 000 |
| W l l calf l | | 6 00 000 | 8 900 000 | |
| W l l b | | 8 000 000 | 160 000 000 | 1 000 000 |
| Grn l l | | 306 00 000 | 11 000 000 | 133 000 |

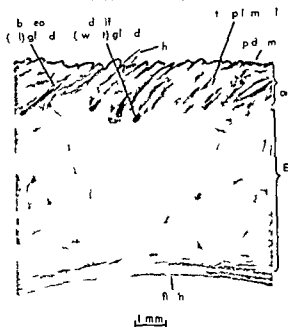


Fig 1 Th h t l gy of n l h d

u wool is the nd ry prod ct of sheep t
remo ed in the p c k ng ho e r pullery l e f o e
k s ar h p p d

Structure of hides Fig e l illu rate the h s t
l gy of attle h de Th dark a ea f r m p derm
to base of h r po ket is kn wn a gai In t
a angem nt f l a ge or sm l l ha p cket a d
mooth gh fa e th g n g i es a h
l the n ch ra ter t p p ea n e

The lght r deeper are ch ra te ized by th
pr ou ced th eed me o l m t e of fibr
n fiber b d l s i the c i m mpo ed m a nly f
the l ot n l l ge B side p t hide a d
kin c tai lip ds ca bohyd ates in rga s l t
d wat S e l n t e g u s e n t

Processing The ta ne s skill co t f proc
s g hdes a d kin f r y g i e th cknes
nd text e t p d e l thers f reas ably uni
f r m g lity wh l p p tuat g r nba c ng th i
p p ea a ce lo g fle s ng l f e ab a i n r e t a n e
d p p m b lity

Wet pe to (be m h use) After hides nd
k h e bee r wet th y m st mo e p gres
ly thr ough the p ce g ope t i o s t a d
l t p t f t o Th y f i s t o k e d i
l an l wate i r c t g l a p t s to d l
l t r hyd te p t d l o n d r t E e
flesh; m d mech lly aft a g

Hdes a e t placed p t c n t a n ng solu
ti f l k l—hyd ated l m Ca(OH) with
with t od m lfide N S Bec a e of th loos
g d l g t f th lkal t the ha r
root h n b m ed m cha ally aft r th s
tr tme t F s nd heep kn wh h re t nd
with th ha e n t g i n th l k l tre t
m t Aft ppl t n of od m sulfid p t
th fl h b p k a e h g r n ght d th
wool p lled f th t d y

Table 2 Leather properties and uses

| Properties and uses | Cowhide | | Calfskin | Sheepskin (lambskin) | Goatskin (kid skin) | Horsehide |
|--|-------------------------------|---|---------------|-------------------------|------------------------|-------------------------|
| | Li ht (upper) | Heavy (sole) | | | | |
| Unit of sale | side ($\frac{1}{2}$ hide) | bends shoulders 1 ell es heads | whole skin | whole skin | whole skin | b itts fronts des |
| Area or wei ht | 10-25 sq ft | 30-60 lb per hide | 3- 0 sq ft | 3 10 sq ft | 2-8 q ft | 3 7 sq ft per cut |
| Thicknes | 2-6 oz | 5-12 iron | 2-4 oz | 1-4 oz | 1 3 oz | 3-6 oz |
| 1 oz = $\frac{1}{64}$ in 1 iron = $\frac{1}{48}$ in | | | | | | |
| Main uses (indicated by x) | | | | | | |
| Shoe uppers | x | | x | | x | x (Cordovan) |
| Shoe linings | | | x | x | x | |
| Shoe soles | | x | | | | |
| Garments | x | | x | x | | x |
| Gloves | x (work) | | | x | x | x (work) |
| Handbags | x | | x | x | | |
| Billfolds | x | | x | x | x | |
| Luggage | x | x | | | | |
| Transmission belting | | x | | | | |
| Mechanical | x | x | | | | |
| Special characteristics | | | | | | |
| Abrasion resistan e | E | E | E | E | G | E (Cordovan) |
| Flex n ^o life | E | E | E | G | E | E |
| Appearance | E | | S | C | E | S (Cordovan) |
| Finish (poli h) | E | | S | C | E | S (C rdovan) |
| Comfort | E | E | E | E | E | G (Cordo an) |
| Drape | G | | G | E | G | G |
| Protection | E | E | E | G | G | E |
| Dimensional stabl ty | E | E | E | E | E | E |
| Vapor permeability | E | M | C | E | G | L (Cordo an) |
| Relative cost | M | M | H | L | H | H (Cordovan) |
| Tannages (indicated by x) | | | | | | |
| Chrome | x | | x | x | x | x |
| Vegetable | x | x | x | x | | |
| Alum | | | | x | | |
| Formaldehyde | | | | x | | |
| Tensile strength 1 in. width | | | | | | |
| sample thickness as used | 250 lb | 700 lb | 60 lb | 90 lb | 1 lt | 6 lb |
| Bursting st en th | 300 lb | | 300 lb | 60 lb | 20 lb | 300 lb |

E excellent G good M medium L low S superior H hi h

Sol leather hides and many others are relimed after dehairing to prepare fibers for tanning. Cattle hides for upper leather are split after liming (alternately after chrome tanning) to reduce thickness to that acceptable to modern wearers. The stock is next delimed that for chrome tanning in a bath of pancreatic enzyme activated with a solution of an ammonium salt which also selectively removes certain proteins. Hides for heavy vegetable tanned leathers are immersed in solutions of weak organic acids such as lactic or hydroxyacetic for surface lime removal without loss of hide substance. The stock now leaves the beam house for further treatment.

Tanning Tanning is the changing of hides and skins into insoluble nonputrescible leather without destruction of the original structure. Furs are partially tanned or dressed without loosening or damaging the filaments or fur.

For chrome tanning the stock is saturated with a solution of a reduced chrome salt usually by hydrated basic chromium sulfate $\text{Cr}(\text{OH})\text{SO}_4$ in a revolving drum. After the hide is saturated this unstable compound is precipitated by mild alkali such as sodium bicarbonate NaHCO_3 and combined chemically with the collagen. In vegetable tanning the stock is given a series of baths of gradually increasing strengths of vegetable extract mainly imported wattle or quebracho. This countercurtrent method assures complete penetration of the fibers without distortion of the hide. Vegetable extracts are adsorbed but do not form strong chemical bonds with collagen.

In a process known as tawing alum is used as a partial tannage supplementing or replacing chrome. Formaldehyde is sometimes used to produce white fluffy leathers. Zirconium salts make pure white leather of great strength.

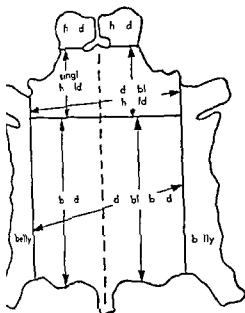


Fig 2 Sol l th ut f m tl h de

By g d l bricat n Upper l th s a edyed
nba d b ca il edyes n drums Clo e con
A of pH: et l to s eu form a d c
et h d Whl in th dr m l br nt i the
m of sulf ted n m l eg tabl or m eral oil
m l n are added The e are t ken up le
m ly by th l ather

H vyle th s e rely dyed but r g n n
il bo d The fu t n f the l b a nt i both p
x nd h avyl athers t p ote t the fibe s d r
ng dry g d s b q nt pr c sing and t l b i
ate the fin h d leath L b t e e ry
bee use the nat l il h e b e sapo fied nd
removed by lk l t atne t d g w t p

De l pm t w k n 1945 n n g a d
et p t i act e a th r th w te h s
t w n th t t me eq ed f the p at
e be c t m n tes The method n exp ri
ment l pe ation

Dry g B th h vy a d pp l th s e next
p aed thr gh e o l g cyl nd s with r d l
blades t rem wat d sm th the gr n Most
upper l ther n t p a ted n p l t gl r
en m lled ir n beet and d ed th t m p e
smooth es and u s r m ty C d i dry
room ar ued t r m o e a t lled mo t of
m st e, with exact g hed le f temp tu
and hum d ty co l to d ha d g r h k
tg l pp l th s r q r ho rs d h vyl th
end y s t dry

F ash g Upp l th s part lly r hy
drated a d softened (t ked) by m h es wh h
w p t i d d l fibe without ptu g fib
b dles. Seve al ts f f h g mat als a e
ext applied by ha d p ay g a t m t
co ry r Pyr yl l qu p ly cryl t mul

s ns cryl trile or p gme t fin he f ca e n
shellac p gme t are employed as indicated but
they mu t not bsc e th gra Biled l seed il
is u d to e at p tent leat e

Gl zing or p l h g m y b ued to enh ce
l ter A good f ish i l tro w ter repell nt
a d vap p rmeable The fle h side f upper
leath r i made att ct e by buffing n m ch nes
with cullatng cyl der co eed with fin sa d
pape S ed leathers re fini hed m larly n the
flesh side to p od ce a soft fi e p Nubuck i
the tradema ked name f r cow h de with a sueded
g ai surfac

Sole and h avy leathers are rolled under high
pre ur (after dampen g) to compact fiber for
m ximum wea then w xed

Furs Dres ed animal pelt ued f r garments r
ad r me t a e k wn a f s Som times the fila
me ts ha r are k own as fur Rabb t fur s
u ive sally ed f felt g hats Se TEXTILE

O g ally f el th g wa w rn fo p otection
t day its style nd luxury f at es p edomin te
The pelt of m k be e f r eal leopard il er
and other f es ma te and e m e c me fr m
wild r an h n mals In addit on wool sk n
ku k r bbt nd m sk t re pr c ssed to im tate
arer m eco tly fur i dema d

F p l t r coll ted all o e the wo ld by
g n zation s ch s The H d n Bay Comp ny nd
old at auction in London Le pzng New Yo k
Le ngrad Mo tre l or St Lo s (Ala kan se l)
The fi t pelt m f om ld el mates

F filam nt a ba bed le g thw i but are
ft downy a d te d to url G rd ha s keep the
filament ap rt and pre t m tting d are re
mo ed in pr essi g

A n the ca e f l a the the q al ty f th o r g i
n l pelt a d th ca e b e rved n t p es rv t on
d termi e the fin l al of the produ t

Th p o e or o r des er rehyd tes the pelt by
so k g t n w t d em es dhe i g f h w th
a kn fe mach e Furs e oft n tacked r t g
gled n t et hed p u n bef re le then g or
taw g Formald hyd c be used s eithe the
m p l te r th partial t n g also nat l l
d hyde f om the d c m p t on of ox d z ng l
re ed The d s ed p l t mu t be soft nd d apey

S b equ t oper t s are clo ely gu rded se
ret b t dy i g s ft employ d to alte lo o
h d t m k th m ev n l m t on furs are
s lly dy d t m l te th nat l c l r i g Dye
mu t ot t n fe t th pe n o lo th ng of th
w r p e c lled rocka g

When nece s ry gu rd h r e r m ed by
pe al m hie F s e p atedly tumbled n
l ed o s n ed d m t s fte th m pol
h th fil me t a d r m ex dye S w d t
r p l e d w l ut h lls re ft dded to s
st in th pol h ng L te s h ced by l c
t i f y ng m h e n wh ch rap dly rev l g cyl
d with ltern t g qu d ant f cl th ng ard
nd h t o mb nd r th filaments

Skilled orters select matching skins and from these the furrier pieces together the garment Dropping machines cut and stitch the pieces o that no joint can be detected along the surface of the fur

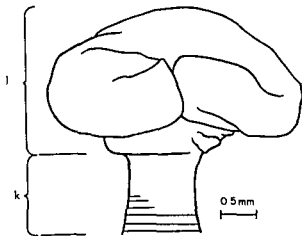
Mouton clo ely resembling beaver is made from sheepskins with the wool attached Only 5% of the pelts available have fine enough wool and adequate fiber density for the purpose Raw pelt are washed with detergent solution tanned with alum dyed combed clipped and ironed repeatedly to straighten the filaments Formaldehyde is used to et filament and to enhance luster

Persian lamb is made from the skins of unborn lambs from Afghanistan It possesses fine filaments and tight curls Rabbit skunk opo um and muskrat are given appropriate variations of the treatment outlined above to produce the desired imitations such as imitation ermine from rabbit Labeling restrictions protect the customer from misrepresentation [K E B]

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Lecanicephaloidea

An order of tapeworms of the subclass Cestoda All species are intestinal parasites of elasmobranch fishes They are distinguished by having a peculiar scolex divided into two portions The lower portion is collarlike and bears four small suckers the upper portion may be discoid or tentacle-bearing and

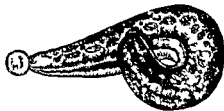


Scolex of a lecanicephaloid tapeworm

is provided with glandular structures (see illustration) The scolex is usually buried in the intestinal wall of the host and may produce local pathology The anatomy of the segment is very similar to that of the Proteocephaloidea Some authorities place the lecanicephalids in the order Tetrathyphloidea to which they are obviously closely related Essentially nothing is known of the life history of lecanicephaloids See CESTODA TETRATHYLIDFA [C P R]

Leech

Any one of about 290 species belonging to the class Hirudinea phylum Annelida Leeches are primarily fresh water animals however some live in damp earth and some are marine Most of them are parasitic on aquatic vertebrates although some are predaceous on worm snail and other invertebrates Turtle are an especially common host Some species attack the inside of the mouths of fishes and can cause their death The large land leeches of southeastern Asia sometimes cause severe pain when they attack man



The leech *Hirudo medicinalis* length to 8 in (From J G Wood *Popular Natural History* Paterson & Co 1885)

The medicinal leech *Hirudo medicinalis* was formerly widely used in Europe for blood letting and may still be rented in a few places for the removal of blood from black eye and other bruises The horse leech *Haemopsis marmoratus* a large predaceous species living in the mud is highly favored in parts of the Midwest for catfish bait

In their basic anatomy leeches are similar to the earthworm They lack coelom greatly reduced by the invasion of theenchymal cells between and around the internal organs Leeches vary in length from 1/2 in to 1 ft Most American species are less than 2 in long They are flattened and composed of 34 segments but appear to have many more segments because of grooves around each segment They are usually greenish to black in color but a few are brightly marked They are provided with a sucker at each end

Leeches are hermaphroditic In some species a spermatophore containing sperm is attached to the back of the recipient where it digests its way into the body cavity and fertilize the egg In other copulation occurs usually with reciprocal fertilization Eggs are deposited in a cocoon and hatch into young resembling the adult See EARTHWORM HIRUDINEA [J O B]

Leg

The portion of the lower limb between thigh and foot All limbed vertebrates show a similar structural pattern based on embryologic development but with differences in proportion and rotation The leg bones are the tibia a large weight supporting bone and the slender rodlike fibula Compartmentalized muscle groups include functional groups which act on the foot ankle and thigh Such muscles

1 m r e the mo the point to which they ar
 a d o r u n o n b i l i z e t t p n t m o e m t a s
 w h a n d a n d i n g (s e M u s c u l l a r s y t e t) B l o d v e s
 e l a n d n r a r p p l e d b y l o w r b a c h e s f
 t h (m t l) r i y a n d l e p n l n e r i r e p e c
 u l y t w o s t o f e s t h e u p f i c i a l a d t h
 d r e p d r a m t h b l o o d t t h t h i g h S S K E L E T A L
 s y t e m [E C S T]

Legume

A dry dehiscent f u t d i e d f r o m a n g l e m p l e
 p o u l a d h i h w h n m a t u r e p l t a l o n g b o t h
 d r a l a d n i t r a l s u t e n t o t w o v l e s S e e
 F a c t (b o t v) T h e t e r m i s a l u e d t o d g
 t a p l t f t h e o r d e r R o a l e s t h t b e a r t h i s
 k o d o f f r u t (s e R o s a l e s) T h e l u m o r p e a
 f u l l y L e g u m i n a c h r a t e r t c a l l y c o n t n s a
 u n g l w o f s e e d a t t c h e d a l g t h l w r o r
 m r l e n t u e o f t h e f t (p o d) T h e e d s a r e
 h i g h l y u r t u d e a l f t h l g u m u p e
 s f r u i t h a l a g e a m u n t f f o o d f b o t h m n
 a n d b e r S S E E D (B O T A N Y) N u r t y i n g b a t e r n
 l i n g s y m b t l l y t h e o o t o f l e g m a c
 m u l t n u r g u m a t r i l h c t h e e p l n t
 a d t b e g o d f t h e l (s e N i t r o b a c
 t e r i a) A m g t h m r c m m o n a n d i m p r
 t a n t l e g u m e s I f l b n l r o w p e a
 k d r u l e s p e d e z a l o c t l p p a p e u t s y
 b e a n d t e h

F r t h e i f f m t n e s e p r a t r t i c l e
 b o e d b y t h a b o o m m o n a m e s [P D S]

Legume forages

P a n s o f t h l g m e f m l y e d f r g r a z i n g h y
 o u l g A b o t 25 s p s a r c l t a t e d t h
 U n e d t e s a n d a l a g r n u m b r u e d f o
 g r a n g r a n g e a d n m p e d p t e s T h e
 e t e d k n d s w e r e b r u g h t t o t h U n e d S t a t s
 b r o m t h p r t f t h w r l d P l a n t e p l o r a t i o n s
 a b e n g c u n d t t h r u p e l l e g
 u p e s o r r i t T h e s p e s n g a d
 m r o e d p t e e n t a n d n t u r a l e d
 p l a n t s o n b y m a n

T h e p r i p a l l i t e d l e g u m e f r a g e s r e
 h t e d i m n a n d a l k e e l e a l f a l f
 l e g e d r a n d t c h e s S w e t c l e f i e l d p e
 r o g h w t e r p e o p e t f l s b u a n d b t
 t o f o r k d z u h i y n d l v t b a
 b d f o t e f l a d e v r l o t h l g u m a
 l o c a l l y i m p o r t t

L e g u m f g e s a s c h n p t d i n t h
 m a l c e n t a l f n m l t r i T h e y
 u n e d t u p p l m e n t g s o a g w h i h r e h
 m b r i d t e s U u a l l y a m p a t i b l e m t u e f
 p r a s e s n d l g m e w l l p d c e l a g e y l d t h n
 e t h a l e

S o m l g u m e h e r e t o i t g z i n g a n i
 m a l t h s o m t i m e s a u b l a t B t y c d
 f e r m e n a f l l g s s o c t d w i t h t h
 l g u m e f o g e C o n d r a b l e c s m t b e e x
 c e n d t h f e e d g a n d t g e f t h e p l n t
 C A L F A L F C L O E R C O M P E N H U D Z U L E S P E

D E Z A L U M I N E s e a l s o C O V E R C R O P S L E G U M E
 P O I O O L S P L A N T [P T]

B i b l i o g r a p h y G a s s U S D A Y e a b o o k A g r
 1948 H D H g e s e t l (e d) F o a g s 1951
 C A P i p e r F o r a g e P l t a n d T h r C u l t u r e
 e d 1954

Leishmaniasis

A n i s e c t i o n s o f e a c a u e d l y f l a g f l a t e p r t o o
 a s p e c i e s f t h e g e n i L i s h m a i a T h d i s e e i s
 t r n m t t e d t o m n b y t h e b i t i n g f l y P h l b t m s
 a d d t i b t d w i d e l y i n t r p i c a l a n d u l t o p i a l
 a r a v c e r a l u t a n e o u a n d m o c u t n e o s
 l e i s h m a n i a s a r e t h t r e h u m a n v a r i e t u u a l l y
 d i n g h e d T h e t h e e r r e p d n g p e f
 t h f l a g f l a t d e s c r i b e d f r m m n e a l m i m
 d i t g u i h a b l e e p t f o r t h e s y m p t m m
 p l e x e t h e y c a e A n t m o y a d a m i d e m
 p o d s e e d f r i e t m e n t a n d t h e l i n g f l y
 c t r o l l e d h e s t v b y t h e o f i n c i e d e s

A l e a l l e i s m a a o r k a l a z a r i c h a c t e
 i z e d b y p o l o n g e d f e v e r e n l a r g e d p l e e n a n e m i a
 d r e a c i t h e n u m b e o f w h i t e l l c h a n g e i n
 p l a m a p o t n n d o f t n b y p g m t a t n o f t h e
 k i C u l t e s f b l o o d o r t i u e c l l t u n e d
 p e p a t n f t s a e e d i t d e m t r a t e L
 d o t h c a u a t e r g i m

C u t a n e u l e i s h m n i a s s a t t i b i t e d t h e s p e
 e L s p a l e s s i n m a n a r e l i m i t e d t o t h e
 k i a n d b e u t a c o u t T h h m a n d i s e a s e
 i b e n i g n e n w h n u n t e a t e d i t n t n u s
 t h g h u t a p e r o d o f m o n t h I t s p o n t a e o l y
 e f f l i m i t e d r a t i o n l e a s a u n d e l b l e s c a r
 a n d i s t e n f l l w e d b y m m u t y t o e n d a t
 t a k v e r y i n u a l n p o t o n d e s

M o c t a e o u s l e h m n i s s t t a k s t h e l i n g
 o f t h m u t h a d a l p a a g e s s w e l l a t h e k i n
 a n d u b u t a n u s t s u e L o s o f p t s o f t h e
 m o t h p h r y n x o r n t r i l s e o f f u r t h e r m t i l
 t m y r u l t i o m t h e f r m t i f r t i f i a l
 c m m u a t n b t w e t h n e a n d m t h L
 b a l n s f o d n t h e l s n a n d i t s i m m e d i
 t t y S e D I P T E R A T R Y P A O S O I A T I D A E

[O W]

Leitneriales

A n d r f t h e p l t b e l a s D o t y l d n a e c n
 t a n n g o n e f m l y (L e u t n i a e) w i t h o n e g n u
 (L i n a) d p c e (L f l o i d a a) T h e
 p l a n t s r e h u b m l l r e s g o w n g n s w m p
 o f t h e u t h e n U n e d S t T h m e c r k w o o d
 i e d b e a s e t h e y p d c e t h e l g h t e s t w o d
 (p e c f i g a t y 021) g w n i n t h U n e d S t a t e s
 S D I C O T Y L E O O N E E E S B R Y O P H Y T A P L A N T
 K I N G D O M [P D S]

Lemming

A n y f e v e a l a t h m a l l h o r t a l e d m a l l
 d o d e t f o n d n E u a a d N r t h A m i a
 T h e t h d t t g e n r a f i m l a n i m l
 l l e d l m m i g a l l t h u b f a m i l y M r o t i n a
 f a m l y C t d a T h e b r w n l e m m i n g g e u

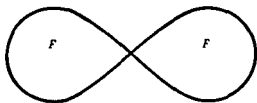


The collared lemming *Dicrostonyx rubricatus* length to 6 in (From E. L. Palmer Fieldbook of Natural History McGraw Hill 1949)

Lemmings are tundra and near tundra animals of the far North. Included here is the Norway lemming famous for its extensive suicidal migrations into the sea which occur when the population threatens to destroy its food supply. The American species has dispersal migrations of a much milder character. The collared lemmings, genus *Dicrostonyx*, are the only small rodents that turn white in the winter. They are strictly tundra animals. The bog lemmings of the genus *Synaptomys* occur over most of the northern and eastern United States and much of Canada. See MOUSE. RODENTIA [J D B]

Lemniscate (of Bernoulli)

A curve shaped like the figure eight, referred to by James Bernoulli in 1694. Let F_1, F_2 be points of a plane π with $F_1F_2 = 2a, a > 0$. The locus of a point P of π which moves so that $PF_1 \cdot PF_2 = b^2$ where b is a positive constant is called an oval of



A lemniscate

Cassini. The lemniscate is obtained when $b^2 = a^2$. Its equation in rectangular coordinates is $(x^2 + y^2)^2 = a^2(x^2 - y^2)$ and in polar coordinates $\rho^2 = a^2 \cos 2\theta$. It is the locus of the point of intersection of a variable tangent to a rectangular hyperbola with the line through the center perpendicular to the tangent. The area enclosed by the lemniscate $\rho^2 = a^2 \cos 2\theta$ is a^2 . See ANALYTIC GEOMETRY [L M D L]

Lemon

The fruit *Citrus limon*, commercially the most important of the acid citrus fruits. Its origin is somewhat obscure but evidence points to southern China and upper Burma as its native home. There are many varieties with wide diversity in tree vigor, size, shape, and character of fruit. Many of the

diverse lemon types are no doubt hybrids with other citrus. The rough lemon is probably such a hybrid and while scarcely edible it is quite important because it is frequently used as a rootstock on which other citrus is budded (see BUDDING).

The true lemons are small evergreen trees the leaves of which have petioles with very narrow wings and give off a lemon odor when crushed. The fruits are medium sized and elongated with 9-11 segments and few seeds. See FRUIT (BOTANY).



The lemon *Citrus limon* (From L. H. Bailey ed. *The Standard Cytopedia of Horticulture*, 2nd ed. McGraw-Hill 1937)

In 1955-1956 the United States produced 31% of the world supply of lemons. California by far the leading lemon producing state had 62,500 acres in 1957. Arizona second in lemon acreage rapidly increasing its acreage. The average yearly value of the lemon crop in the United States at the packing house from 1948 to 1958 was \$40,810,800.

No other citrus fruit has such a wide variety of uses. Lemon juice, very high in vitamin C, is used in beverages and to garnish meats and fish. It has many culinary uses, especially in pies, cakes, ice candies, jellies, and marmalades. Citric acid, pectin, and lemon oil are by products of the fruit. See CITRIC ACID, FAT AND OIL, EDIBLE PECTIN. See also FRUIT (TREE) [F E C]

Length

Extension in space. Length is one of the three fundamental physical quantities (the other two being mass and time) and therefore cannot be defined in terms of simpler quantities. It is defined in terms of the operations involved in its measurement in reference to an arbitrary standard called the international meter. Calibrated sticks or tapes are constructed by direct or indirect comparison with the prototype meter which is preserved at Sevres, France. Various multiples and submultiples of the meter are indicated by calibration marks. Lengths of objects or distances between points are made by direct comparison with calibrated sticks and tapes. Decimal multiples and submultiples of the meter are frequently used in specifying length in English speaking countries (the foot (0.3048 m) is a length unit. See [D W L]

Lens optical

A curved piece of glass or plastic molded to usually glass for the effect of its two surfaces is the same. Usually it is an optical symmetry for both surfaces can be cylindrical, or a general surface with double symmetry. The intersection point of the symmetry is with the two surfaces called the front and back centers and their separation is called the thickness of the lens.

Compound lenses A compound lens is a combination of two or more lenses which the center of the lens has the same axis as the first surface of the following lens and the two lenses are mounted together. Compound lenses are used in optical systems for correction of aberrations. To reduce spherical aberration the aperture of the lens is reduced. Sometimes the compound lens is composed of several thin lenses cemented together. The optical system is a lens system consisting of several lenses which are the mirror image of the other. The magnification of the system is called the hemispherical. When $m = 1$ the system is said to be a low magnification.

Single lenses The lens is often called a biconvex and the axis of the aperture is the optical axis. The focal length is the distance from the optical axis to the focal point. The focal length is 50 mm and the diameter is 25 mm. The focal ratio is 0.5 and the focal ratio is $f/2$.

FOCAL LENGTH The focal length of a lens is the distance from the optical axis to the focal point. The focal length is 50 mm and the diameter is 25 mm. The focal ratio is 0.5 and the focal ratio is $f/2$.

If the focal length is 50 mm and the diameter is 25 mm, the focal ratio is 0.5 and the focal ratio is $f/2$.

$$\phi = (-1)(p_1 - p_2) + \frac{t(-1)^2}{r_1 p_2}$$

The curvature of the surface of the lens is the reciprocal of the radius of curvature. The focal length is the distance from the optical axis to the focal point. The focal length is 50 mm and the diameter is 25 mm. The focal ratio is 0.5 and the focal ratio is $f/2$.

$$S_\phi = -(t/r)(-1)\rho$$
$$S_\phi = 1 + S_\phi$$

The lens is often called the biconvex. The focal length is the distance from the optical axis to the focal point. The focal length is 50 mm and the diameter is 25 mm. The focal ratio is 0.5 and the focal ratio is $f/2$.

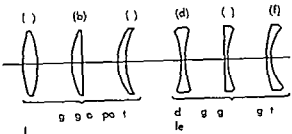


Fig 1 C mm typ f l () B (b)
Pl o (c) P i m (d) B c
() Pl c (f) N g i m i (F m F A
J k a d H E Wh i F d m i l of Opt 3d
d McGraw Hill 1957)

If the design of the lens permits the replacement of one lens by another without changing the data of Gaussian optics.

When thick lenses are involved Gaussian optics remain correct only if both the powers of the thick lens and the distance between the back nodal point of the first lens and the front nodal point of the second lens remain unchanged. Thus a bending of a thick lens should be accompanied by such a displacement.

The optical center of a thick lens is the image of the nodal point produced by the lens. All light rays through the optical center emerge parallel to the repeated direction of the incident ray.

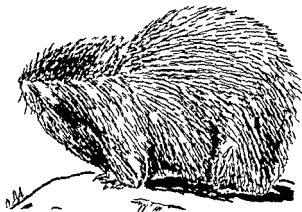
An optical center is a point of symmetry which divides the separation of the two parts of the lens in the ratio $1/m$. If the negative of the focal length is the same as the distance between the thick lens and the nodal point of the second lens, the optical center is at the intersection of the two nodal points of the lens.

A lens is said to be a thick lens if $\phi > 0$ and a thin lens if $\phi < 0$. When $\phi = 0$ the lens is a focal surface of the type of collecting and diverging lens as shown in Fig 1.

The lens is a spherical surface. The optical axis is the line of symmetry. The focal length is the distance from the optical axis to the focal point. The focal length is 50 mm and the diameter is 25 mm. The focal ratio is 0.5 and the focal ratio is $f/2$.

SPHERICAL SURFACES OPTICAL A spherical surface is a surface which has a constant radius of curvature. The focal length is the distance from the optical axis to the focal point. The focal length is 50 mm and the diameter is 25 mm. The focal ratio is 0.5 and the focal ratio is $f/2$.

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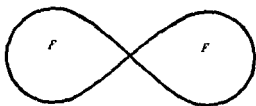


The collared lemming *Dicrostonyx torquatus* length to 6 in (From E. L. Palmer: Fieldbook of Natural History, McGraw-Hill, 1949)

Lemmings are tundra and near tundra animals of the far North. Included here is the Norway lemming, famous for its extensive suicidal migrations into the sea which occur when the population threatens to destroy its food supply. The American species has dispersal migrations of a much milder character. The collared lemmings, genus *Dicrostonyx*, are the only small rodents that turn white in the winter. They are strictly tundra animals. The bog lemmings of the genus *Synaptomys* occur over most of the northern and eastern United States and much of Canada. See MOUSE, RODENTIA. [J. D. B.]

Lemniscate (of Bernoulli)

A curve shaped like the figure eight, referred to by James Bernoulli in 1694. Let F_1, F_2 be points of a plane π with $F_1F_2 = 2a$, $a > 0$. The locus of a point P of π which moves so that $PF_1 \cdot PF_2 = b^2$ where b is a positive constant is called an oval of



A lemniscate

Cassini. The lemniscate is obtained when $b = a$. Its equation in rectangular coordinates is $(x^2 + y^2)^2 = a^2(x^2 - y^2)$ and in polar coordinates $\rho^2 = a^2 \cos 2\theta$. It is the locus of the point of intersection of a variable tangent to a rectangular hyperbola with the line through the center perpendicular to the tangent. The area enclosed by the lemniscate $\rho = a^2 \cos 2\theta$ is a^2 . See ANALYTIC GEOMETRY. [L. M. B. L.]

Lemon

The fruit *Citrus limon*, commercially the most important of the acid citrus fruits. Its origin is somewhat obscure but evidence points to southern China and upper Burma as its native home. There are many varieties with wide diversity in tree vigor, size, shape, and character of fruit. Many of the

diverse lemon types are no doubt hybrids with other citrus. The rough lemon is probably such a hybrid and while scarcely edible it is quite important because it is frequently used as a root stock on which other citrus is budded (see BUDDING).

The true lemons are small evergreen trees the leaves of which have petioles with very narrow wings and give off a lemon odor when crushed. The fruits are medium sized and elongated with 9-10 segments and few seeds. See FRUIT (BOTANY).



The lemon *Citrus limon* (From L. H. Bailey, ed. The Standard Cyclopaedia of Horticulture, vol. 2, Macmillan, 1937)

In 1955-1956 the United States produced 31.1% of the world supply of lemons. California by far the leading lemon producing state had 62.5% of the acreage in 1957. Arizona second in lemon acreage rapidly increasing its acreage. The average year value of the lemon crop in the United States at the packing house from 1948 to 1958 was \$30,810,800.

No other citrus fruit has such a wide variety of uses. Lemon juice very high in vitamin C is used in beverages and to garnish meats and fish. It has many culinary uses especially in pies, cake, ice cream, candies, jellies and marmalades. Citric acid, pectin and lemon oil are by products of the fruit. See CITRIC ACID, FAT AND OIL, EDIBLE, PECTIN. [F. E. G.]

Length

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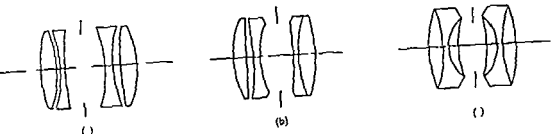


Fig 3 Type of systems (a) C I (b) T (c) Dog

of front surface of 160 or total field of 50 (Fig. 3a) The lens can be a cemented doublet for correction of spherical aberration (Fig. 2b) Practically a series of measurements with the stop toward the film is used.

Combining two elements of the same material with entrance pupil in the center of the system and to the error for small apertures and large field angles (Fig. 2c) The basic type of wide-angle objective is the Hyslop type, consisting of two elements in the center of the system (Fig. 2d) The type of system to be corrected for spherical aberration and field curvature is the total field angle of 180 but it is not only used for a small aperture ($f/1.9$) it cannot be corrected for spherical aberration. The aperture can be reduced to $f/4$ at the expense of field angle by thickening the chromatic elements. The dog type of symmetrical elements is the center of the system.

The Petzval type is a symmetrical type of system with a stop in the center of the system (Fig. 2) The type of system with a stop in the center of the system is the Petzval type. The type of system with a stop in the center of the system is the Petzval type. The type of system with a stop in the center of the system is the Petzval type.

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represent the top each system containing three or more lenses (Fig. 3c)

Modern lenses are the result of the perturbation of the field of view, it is frequently admitted that the plane of the lens is by two separated lines, since the power of a lens is determined with large radii and the mean that the angles are used at multiple relative aperture. The replacement of single lenses by a multi-lens system changes the color balance and thus the designer may achieve more favorable conditions. Moreover, the introduction of new types of glass (flint glass, crown glass, barium flint glass, etc.) and the use of earths led to the development of which the same power has weaker spherical aberrations and therefore the help of the lens designer.

Of modern designs the most useful are the so-called modified triplet, the form of which is shown in Fig. 4a. The Biot type (Fig. 4b) is a modified Cooke type with a large pupil and a field of about 24° and the Togo type (Fig. 4c) is a petzval type with a pupil in the center of the system to permit the correction of spherical aberration for a moderate aperture and a large field. One or two plane-parallel plates sometimes added to correct distortion.

Spacial frequencies are directly derivable from the focal length of an objective. This is sometimes done by making a fixed near camera point behind the stop with an exchangeable set of components; first of the stop. The designer has to be that the errors of the two points are balanced out regardless of which focal length is used.

The telephoto objective is a properly constructed objective with the rear principal plane in front of the lens. The combination of lenses with short back focal length is called a telephoto lens.

The Petzval objective is one of the oldest designs (1840) but one of the most ingenious. It is a geodesic lens system of two pairs of widely separated elements. The first pair

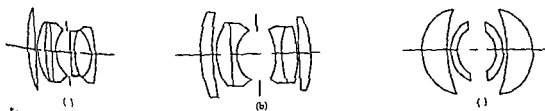


Fig 4. Modified telephoto (a) S (b) B (c) T P

Cemented lenses Consider a compound lens made of two or more simple thin lenses cemented together. Let the power of the k th simple lens be ϕ and its Abbe value v (see CHROMATIC ABERRATION). The difference between the powers of the combination for wavelengths corresponding to C and F is

$$P_F - P_C = P/N = \sum \phi / v$$

where N may be considered to be the effective v value of the combination. The v values of optical glasses vary between 25 and 70 with the v value of fluorite being slightly larger ($= 95.1$). By using compound lenses effective values of N can be obtained outside this range. Color correction is achieved as N becomes infinite so that $P_F - P_C = 0$. A lens so corrected is called an achromat. In optical design it is sometimes desirable to have negative values of N to balance the positive values of the rest of the system containing collecting lenses. Such a lens is said to be hyperchromatic. A cemented lens corrected for more than two colors is said to be apochromatic. A lens corrected for all colors of a sizable wavelength range is called a superchromatic lens. See OPTICAL MATERIALS.

LENS SYSTEMS

Optical systems may be divided into four classes: telescopes, oculars (eyepieces), photographic objectives and enlarging lenses. See EYEPIECE MICROSCOPE OPTICAL.

Telescope systems A lens system consisting of two positive systems combined so that the back focal point of the first (the objective) coincides with the front focal point of the second (the ocular) is called a telescope. Parallel entering rays leave the system as parallel rays. The magnification is equal to the ratio of the focal length of the first system to that of the second.

If the second lens has a positive power, the telescope is called a terrestrial or Keplerian telescope and the separation of the two parts is equal to the sum of the focal lengths.

If the second lens is negative, the system is called a Galilean telescope and the separation of the two parts is the difference of the absolute focal lengths. The Galilean telescope has the advantage of shortness (a shorter system enables a larger field to be corrected) but the Keplerian telescope has a real intermediate image which can be used for introducing a reticle or a scale into the intermediate plane.

Both objective and ocular systems are in general corrected for certain specific aberrations while the other aberrations are balanced between the two systems. See TELESCOPE, TELESCOPE ASTRONOMICAL.

Photographic objectives A photographic objective images a distant object onto a photographic plate or film. See PHOTOGRAPHY.

The amount of light reaching the light-sensitive layer depends on the aperture of the optical system which is equivalent to the ratio of the lens diameter to the focal length. Its reciprocal is called the f -number. The smaller the f -number, the more light strikes the film. In a well corrected lens (corrected for aperture and asymmetry error) the f -number cannot be smaller than 0.5.

The larger the aperture (the smaller the f -number) the less is the scene luminance required to expose the film adequately. Therefore, if pictures of objects in dim light are desired, the f -number must be small. On the other hand, for a lens of given focal length, the depth of field is proportional to the aperture.

Since the exposure time is the same for the center as for the edge of the field, it is desirable for a much light to get to the edge as to the center; that is, the photographic lens should have little vignetting.

The camera lens can be considered as an eye looking at an object (or its image) with the diaphragm corresponding to the eye pupil. The Gaussian image of the diaphragm in the object (image) space is called the entrance (exit) pupil. The angle under which the object (image) is seen from the entrance (exit) pupil is called the object (image) field angle. For most photographic lenses, the entrance and exit pupils are close to the respective nodal points; for such lenses, the object and the image field angles are equal.

In general, photographic objectives with large fields have small apertures, those with large apertures have small fields. The construction of the two types of systems is quite different. One can say in general that the larger the aperture, the more complex the lens system must be.

There exist cameras (so called pinhole cameras) that do not contain lenses. The image is then produced by optical projection. The aperture in this case should be limited to $f/22$.

Other types of lenses A biconcave lens with its concave side towards the object and with its stop in front at its optical center gives good

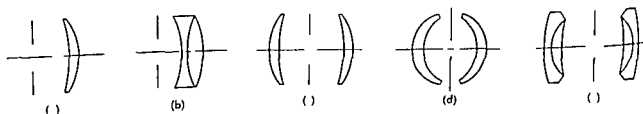
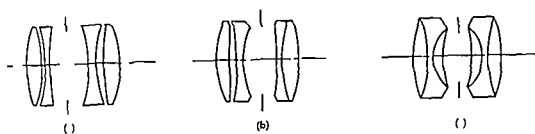


Fig. 2 Older photographic lenses: (a) Meniscus, (b) Simple achromat, (c) Petzval, (d) Hyperwedge, (e) Symmetrical chromatic.



Type f stigm ts () C I (b) f () D g

1: 1/16 er t al f i l d of 50 (Fig 2a)
m be a c m t e d d b l e t f c o r r c t i n g
t u e r r (F 2b) F p c t i l e a n
e m e c u s w i t h t h e t o p t w a d s t h f i l m
a s e d
m b g t m e i s s l n s t o f r m a y m
c i l w i t h n t l s t p m k e s i t p b l e
c o r r e c t i o n s a d d s t t n e r o r f o r
f p e r t e s a d l a r g e f i l d a n g l (F g 2c)
b o t t o p e d e s l b j e t i s t h e H y
n e c n i t g o f t m n n c u l e e n
t h t h e t p (F g 2d) T h i s t y p e o f s y s t e m
b e r e c t e d f a t e m t m n d f i l d c r v a
e a t o t a l f i e l d a n g l o f 180 b u t i t n l y
e d f m a l l p e r t u r e (f/12) c e t c n o t
r e d f p e t i e r o T h e a p r t e n
s c r e d t o 1/4 a t t h e e x p n e f i l d a n g l e b y
k g a n d c h m a t i z i n g t h e m n n c u l e e
d d g s y m m t a l e l e m t i n t h e c e t e r o r
t t d e o f t h e b c l m n t s
p o i n t h m a t m e i s s y m m e t r i c a l l y
i n g e d d t h t p l e d t t h p l t t y p o f
(F 2) T h t y p e w a p h c a l l y n d
o m i a l l y r e c t e d s c t h f i e l d o t
r e c t e d a m p r m w a s c h i e d b y b a l
g s a g i t t a l d m e i d n l f i l d c r v a t u r
t h t o e m g s u f f e c e f i t n d t h e t h e r
b k f i t h f i l m

f o u r g m a r l n s T h e d o r y o f t h e P e t z v a l
e d i f f e r f i l d r t n l e d t t h e o n t u t n
a n a t g m t l e s f w h c h t i g m a t s m d
n t e f f i l d a c t d S c h l n s m s t
o n a g a t m p o e s
T h C e l (G a) t y p e o n t f t w o i r
r a d a m t e d u b l t n e a h d e o f t h e
o p (F g 3a) T h C o o k e t p l e t m b i e s a n g a
l n t h p a r t u r t p w i t h t w o p t
e s o e i n f n t d t h o t h r a b a k I t
n e d T e m (F i g 3b) i f t h e l a s t p o t I n
a c e m e n t e d u b l t a H l a f b t h p s t
e m e t d T h D g o t y p e s t f
l e n s i m t h a n e l y s y m m t l w t h

r e p e c t t t h t o p a c h y t e m c o n t a i n i n g t h r e e o r
m r e l e e (F i g 3c)

M d e r l n s T i c e a t h e a p e r t u r e t h e
f i e l d r b t h a t i f e q u i t l y d a n t a g i s t r e
p l a n l e n b y t w p r a t e d l n e i n t h e
m e p w e i s a c h i e d w i t h l r g e r r a d a n d t h
m e a n t h a t t h e a n g l e l e e r e d t m a l l r
r e l t u a p e t e T h e r p l a g o f a g l e l e n s
b y a c e m n t e d l e n c h a g e t h e o l o r l a l n e e a n d
t h u t h e d i e r m a y c h i e v e m e f a o l l c o
d i t n M e e r t h e i t o d t i n o f n e w t y p e s o f
g l s (f i s t t h g l e c e t a i n g b a r m l a t t h
g l a s c n t n g r e e r t h) l e d t l n e l e m
m n t w h h f r t h e m p w r h e w e a k e r u r
f a s a d e t h e r f o r o f g r e t h l p t o t h e l n
d e s i g e r

O f m d e n d e s n s t h e m t s c c f l a r e t h
S o n a a m o d i f i e d t r p l e t o n f m o f w h h i s
s h w n i n F i g 4a t h B t a r (F g 4b) m o d i f i e d
G a s b j e t i w i t h l a r g e p e r t u r e n d a f i e l d f
a b o u t 24 a d t h e T p o g (F g 4c) p i s o p t i
l e n w i t h u p p l e m e n t r y t h k m e i c i t p e r m i t
t h c t i o o f a p r t u r e b r a t n s f o r a m o d e r
t e p e t u r e d a l g f i l d O e t w p l a
p a r l l p l a t s e s o m e t m d d e d t c r r c t
d s t t i

S p c i l b j t i s I t i f r q u i t l y d e s i r a b l t
c h n t h e f c l l e n g t h f n o b j e t e T h i
s o m t u m d n e b y m b a f i x e d n r m
p n n t b e h i n d t h t o p w i t h a n x h g b l e t
f o m p e n t f o t f t h t o p T h d e g e r
h a t b e t h t t h o r o f t h t w p a r t a r
b a l e d u t e g r d l e s s f w h h f o n t m p e t
n e

T h t e l e p h t o b j e t i a p e a l l y c t r c t e d
o b j e t w i t h t h e n o d l p t i f o n t o f t h e
l n s t o c m b e a l g f c l l g t h w i t h a s h o r t
b k f a S T E L E P H O T O L E S

T h e P e t z v a l b j t i e o f t h l d t d e g n
(1840) b u t o e f t h e m t n e n I t i s t i
g n a l f f o l e e r d e d i t w p w d e l y
p t e d f r m h o t h T h f i r t p a e

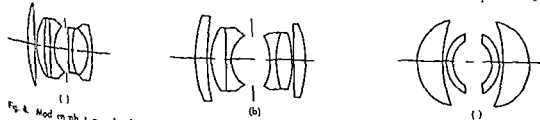


Fig 4 Mod em ph i g p h l () S o (b) B t () T p g

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There exist cameras (so called pinhole cameras) that do not contain lenses. The image is then produced by optical projection. The aperture in this case should be limited to $f/22$.

Other types of lenses A single meniscus lens with its concave side toward the object and with its stop in front at its optical center gives good

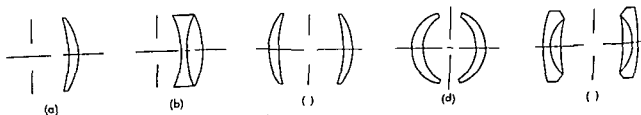


Fig. 2 Older photographic lenses: (a) Meniscus, (b) Simple achromat, (c) Periscope, (d) Hypergo wide angle, (e) Symmetrical achromat.

Leo

The Lion, in a t o n m y is a m a g i f i e t z d a c a l
constellati n appear g d r n g p r n g and early
summer It is th fifth sign of the Z d a c Leo i
J d f i e d a d bears a c l e r e e m b l a n c e to th
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g r o p o l i r s c a l l e d th S c k l e Th f i s t m a g n i
t u d s t a r R e g u l s (l i t t l e R l e r) f o r m s the handle
f the k l Th e e s t a t o the e a t f o r m i n g a
m l l t r a g l c n t t t e th L i n s h u n c h e s with
t b g h t s t a r D e b o l (t l o f the l i)
t a g b o l t a r A c i a t e d with th c o n t e l l a
t i o n a r e the f a m L e o d s h w o f m e t o r s
h b h a n b e s e e n r d a t n g f o m L e o i n N o e m b
l c h e a r a n d a p p e a r g e p e c i a l l y b r i l l a n t a t
i n r a l f b o u t 33 y e S e C O N S T E L L A T I O N
M i r r o r .

[C S V]

Leopard

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a d c r o s s A f r o m the B l a c k S e n t S b e
T h l e o p d a k i l l e d l m b a n d f a o f o
e s t e d r e a f t e l u m l g a t e e t a m l h t
F y T h e a r e a l d f f e n t u b p e s i c l d
g t h b l k l p d r p a t h o f o u t h n M a
h

Leopard a e m e w h a t s m a l l e r t h l n
t i g e r s , a n d h e n o t e e b l y l g r t a i l T h y a t t a i

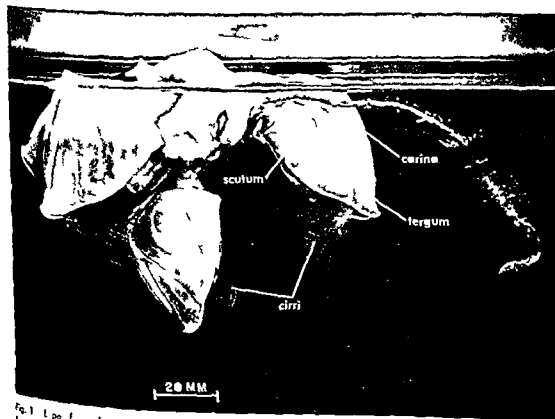


T h l p d F l p d l g h t 57 (F o m P M
D e e d C i f N t l H s t y C H 1883)

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e c n i d e r t h e m m o r e d a n g r o u t h a n a n y o t h e r
c t T h e y r e n o c t r n a l p y i n g p r i m r i l y u p o n
a n t e l p e b b o n w i l d p a n d s i m l a r a n m a l
T h e y a l o e t a l l d o m t i c i m l b t r a r e l y w i l l
a t t a c k a n d k i l l h u m a n T h e m t c o m m n f r m i n
s t e r n A f i c a a n d d j a c e t A a i s r e d d i s h b r o w n
a n d m a l e d w i t h p e n t o e t t e s o r d a k p o t i n a
e g u l r p t e r n S e e C A R N I V O R A L I O N T I G E R
[J D B]

Lepadomorpha

A s u b o r d e f t h T h a c i c a T h e s e b a r n a c l e s h a v e
p e d u n c l a n d a c a p t u l u m w h c h i u u l l y p r o
t e c t e d b y c a l a r e o p l a t e s C a d a l f u r c a d f i l a
m e n t r y p p e d a g e o f t n a r e p n t T h e e
u t a c e n a e i t h r h e r m a p h d t i c o r t h e e s
m a y b s e p r a t e



F i g . 1 L e p a f J E l l d S o l d f l o a t b m b l t p p l y o d q i b y o c y (p h f o
l o a r e d b y t h b a r n i f t t h b l c t (V I I g p h b y D P W I)
b a r n e r d t h l k i p w h h t h c y p d n l d

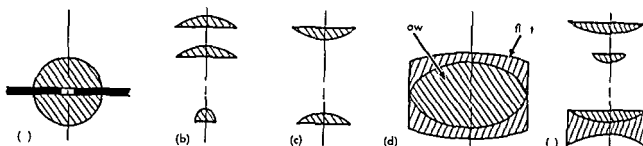


Fig 5 Some typical magnifiers (a) Sphere with equatorial diaphragm (b) Planoconvex lens combinations

(d) Steinheil triple applanat (e) Chevalier type with long working distance

mented and the second usually has a small air space. For a relatively large aperture it is excellently corrected for aperture and asymmetry errors as well as for chromatic errors and distortion. It is frequently used as a portrait lens and as a projection lens because of its sharp central definition. Astigmatism can be balanced but not corrected.

For a discussion of lenses with variable magnification see ZOOM LENSES. See also GHOST IMAGE OPTICAL.

Enlarger lenses and magnifiers. The basic type of enlarger lens is a holosymmetric system consisting of two systems of which one is symmetrical with the first system except that all the data are multiplied by the enlarging factor m . When the object is in the focus of the first system the combination is free from all lateral errors even before correction. A magnifier in optics is a lens that enables an object to be viewed so that it appears larger than its natural size.

The magnifying power is usually given as equal to one quarter of the power of the lens expressed in diopters. See DIOPTRIC MAGNIFICATION.

Magnifying lenses of low power are called reading glasses. A simple planoconvex lens in which the principal rays are corrected for astigmatism for a position of the eye at a distance of 1 in. is well suited for this purpose, although low power magnifiers are often made commercially with biconvex lenses. A system called a verant consists of two lenses corrected for color astigmatism and distortion. It is designed for stereoscopic vision at low magnification.

For higher magnifications many forms of magnifiers exist. One of the basic designs has the form of a full sphere with a diaphragm at the center as shown in Fig 5a. The sphere may be solid or it may be filled with a refracting liquid. When it is solid the diaphragm may be formed by a deep groove around the equator. Combinations of thin planoconvex lenses as shown in Figs 5b and c are much used for moderate power. Better correction can be attained in the applanatic magnifier of C. A. Steinheil in which a biconvex crown lens is cemented between a pair of flint lenses (Fig 5d).

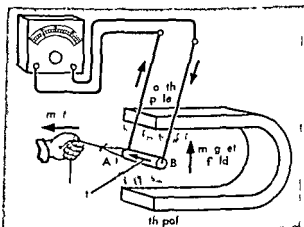
A design by C. Chevalier (Fig 5e) aims for a large object distance. It consists of an achromatic negative lens combined with a distant collecting front lens. A magnifying power of up to 10X with an

object distance up to 3 in. can be attained. [N.Y.]

Bibliography. K. Brandt, *Das Photo Objectiv*, 1956. M. Herzberger, *Modern Geometrical Optics*, 1958. R. Kinglake, *Lenses in Photography*, 1951.

Lenz's law

A law of electromagnetism which states that whenever there is an induced electromotive force (emf) in a conductor it is always in such a direction that the current it would produce would oppose the change which causes the induced emf. If the change is the motion of a conductor through a magnetic field as in the illustration the induced current must be in such a direction as to produce a force oppos-



Induced emf in moving conductor. Direction of current induced in wire AB indicated by the arrows. (From M. W. White, K. V. M. G. & R. L. Weber, *Practical Physics*, 2d ed., McGraw-Hill, 1955).

ing the motion. If the change causing the emf is a change of flux threading a coil, the induced current must produce a flux in such a direction as to oppose the change. That is, if the change is an increase of flux, the flux due to the induced current must be opposite in direction to the increasing flux. If the change is a decrease in flux, the induced current must produce flux in the same direction as the decreasing flux.

Lenz's law is a form of the law of conservation of energy. It states that a change cannot propagate itself. See CONSERVATION OF ENERGY. [K.V.M.]

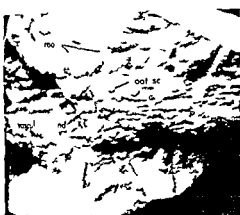


Fig. 2 Shg on with tt h d o ts. (F m
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K. W. C. B. 1940)

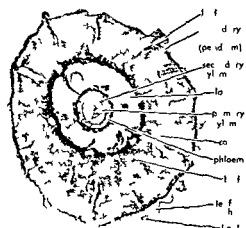


Fig. 3 L p d o d d s l T f
the p e l c u f m e d by b e a k d w f r t l t
the f m M H l q R h h l l p d o
d e n d r o s e l g d S t M m l e S N
w o r d d o f 17 1892)

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o d S t g m r i a L p d s t b u s L p d c a
p o n M u n d m i a, a n d M a p n
V e g e t a t i v e m o r p h o l o g y T h a r b r e c e t g n e a
r i l g p t r e s (F g 1) m e a t t a i n n g h g h t i n
r e e f 100 f t. T h e b a s a l p r i c s t e d f d
r a n t o m t m f r h z o m e l k g s c l l e d
S g m r i a, g i u g a l y h r i z o n t a l b h e s
s t b w f t h t k T h e s e g s w h h b o e
a m l d r o o t (F g 2) h a d t e m l k e
r u c t e r g g m a n a s e s w e r b o r n b y L p
d o d n d L p d p h l B t h o d d n S g l
l a r e, a d p o b l y t h

The tall straight trunks usually branched by un-
equal d hot my i t a c w n of s c e e s s i v e l y
smaller br nche (Fig 1) *Sigillaria* howe er
b a n c h e d l y s l i g h t l y o r n o t a t a l l A n a t o m i c a l l y
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p r i m a r y p h l e m L e f t t r a c e b r n c h f r m t h e s r
f a c e f t h e e n t r a l t a n d a d a r e f r e q u e n t l a c
c o m p a n i e d b y t w p a r e n c h y m a t u p a r i c h n
t r a n d o f t k n o w f u c t n I n m a y s p e c i e s
o n d a y x y l m a n d p h l o e m w e r e p o d u c e d T h e
i s f r e q u e n t l y a w i d e p e r i p h e r a l z e o f e l o n g a t e d
t h i k w a l l e d c e l l s p r o d u c e d b y m e r i s t e m a t i v
i t y w i t h i n t h e r t e x T h i s s e c o n d a r y r i e o r
p e r i d e r m i s t h e m a j o r u p p e r t i n g t i e i n t h e
a r b o r e s c e n t p e c i e s n e c e d n a r y w o o d a c
c o n t f r o n l y a b o u t n e t e n t h t o o f i f t h o f t h e
t a l b u l k o f t h e s t e m T h e m e r c e t l i s s e s e
f r e q u e n t l y l a c k i n g S e e M E R I S T E M L A T E R A L
S T E L E

Leaf cushions are a prominent feature of the
genus (Fig 4 5a) The e f m w h i c h l e a v e s h a v
f a l l e n e s s u a l l y c h a r a c t e r i z e d b y a l e a f c a r a
l i g l e p t a d i n L p d o d r o a v r t i c l
r i d g b e a t h t h e l e a f a r a l l d t h e k e e l (F i g
5a) A b c i o n f t h e l f i L e p d p h l o s a n d
S b l p d p h l s s d d n t o c r f l u s h w i t h t h e u r
f a e o f t h e c u h o n b u t f r o m a n o t w d t e n
n a l l d t h e l e a f b a (F i g 4) T h e l o n g

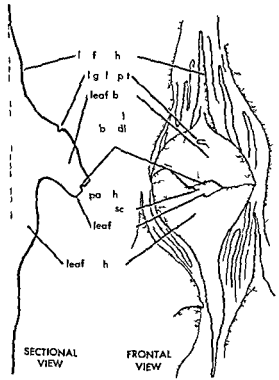


Fig 4 S b l p d p h l o r o l f h s
t i l d f t l w (F m C A H p p g A
t h l f h f p f p l
a b t l y p d p R o y S E d b g h
B l 66(1) P n t 1956)

Th lpid de dral n g e a were mmon n
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COAL BALLS PALEOBOTANY [CBB]
Bibliography C. A. Arnold *A Int od t n to*
Paleobot r 1947 J h W lt *A I t duction*
t th St dy J f l Pla t 2ded 1953

Lepidolite

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erals [EWH]

Lepidoptera

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plet Th l r e, mm ly lled t p l l
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abd m l p les Pupa b l f m

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and skippers usu ll fly in the d y t m and most m ths
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a ealm t always h e b

MORPHOLOGY

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b c i to coil Th liqu d food is sucked up by
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ynx b l ty nd b m (f d p cket of
th m uth ty) O ll r b t n many
groups such as the Hesperioidea a d P p l n
de A te e re quite variable i th Lep
d pt

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th f ew g Th p e k w a th f l m
d th l p th t l m l th H m u
th l b th j g m t th b e f th f
w g wh h g g th h dw g th f l m



Fig 5 Stem compressions showing leaf scar arrangement in (a) *Lepidodendro aculeatum* and (b) *Sigillaria bobbayi* (From A R n i e r F S t o k m a n s F D e m a e t a n d V V a n S t a l e n Flore et Fauna Houillères de la Belgique M e u s s e n R o y H i s t o r i e Nat Belgique 1938)

axis of the cushion in *Lepidophloios* is horizontally oriented in contrast to the vertical orientation of *Lepidodendron*. Some genera such as *Bothrodendron* and *Sigillaria* either lacked leaf cushions (Fig 5b) or bore slightly raised ones. Stem compressions of *Sigillaria* (Fig 5b) are easily distinguished from *Lepidodendron* (Fig 5a) by the arrangement in the former of leaf scars in vertical rows.

The linear to awl-shaped leaves varied from about 1 cm to 1 meter in length and usually contained a single vein. However leaves of *Sigillaria* which also attained the greatest length may have always contained two veins at least in their bases. On vegetative parts of these plants the ligule a small unvascularized appendage was located above the leaf in a depression called the ligule pit (Fig 4). In strobili the ligule was located on the sporophyll just distal to the sporangium (Fig 6a).

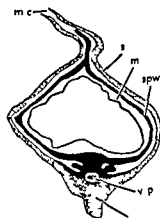
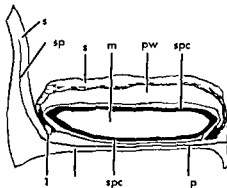
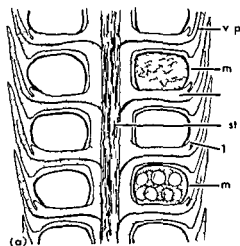


Fig 6 (a) *Lepidostrobus* Idealized drawing of a longitudinal section of part of a strobilus (From C A A r o l d A n t h r o p o l o g i c a l P a l a e o b o t a n y M c G r a w H i l l 1947) (b) *Lepidostrobus* Longitudinal section of a megaspore and sporangium cut away along a median longitudinal plane and (c) cut at a right angle to the longitudinal plane. Key: l ligule m megaspore m c megaspore cuticle m c sporangium containing megaspores m m c sporangium

Reproductive structures The Lepidodendrales were heterosporous. Strobili named *Lepidostrobus* were produced by *Lepidodendron* and *Lepidophloios*. *Lepidocarpon* by *Lepidodendron* and *Bothrodendrostrobus* by *Bothrodendron*. *Sigillariostrobus* and *Mazocarpon* were strobili of *Sigillaria*. The plant which bore *Viadescmia* is unknown. *Lepidostrobus* was bisexual containing both megaspores and microspores (Fig 6a). *Lepidocarpon* produced either all microspores or all megaspores. The horizontally elongated megasporangium (Fig 6b c) was enclosed by the sporophyll sometimes called an integument. The cavity formed by this integument had a slit opening (micropyle) along the upper surface. One of the four megaspores developed into the gametophyte; the remaining three atrophied. Archegonia have been observed in the gametophyte and microspores developed within the sporophyll. Presumably fertilization occurred while the gametophyte and sporangium were contained within the enclosing sporophyll but no embryos have ever been found. The structures are frequently called seeds although there is little evidence that the so-called integument is more than a highly specialized sporophyll. *Viadescmia* produced even more highly specialized seedlike structures. *Mazocarpon* differed from *Lepidocarpon* in producing eight megaspores; several or all of which were functional, embedded in a mass of parenchymatous tissue. The megasporangium and sporophyll were shed as a unit. *Mazocarpon* and *Sigillariostrobus* (a compression fossil) are probably synonymous and were borne laterally on the trunk or large branches of *Sigillaria*. The strobili of *Lepidodendron* were probably always borne terminally.

containing microspores micropyle; s sporophyll; spc cavity of sporangium; spw sporangium wall; sp arcular supply of sporophyll; vst vascular supply of strobilus; s (From J H H o k s a d A T C o s A c a d e m y of the sciences of the United States of America 1941) (b) from I w A n M d l a d Nat al 25 1941)

Genitalia The f m f the e t l genitalia
ne ll that f th mal ha bee w dely ued n
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DEVELOPMENTAL STAGES

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200
MICRONS

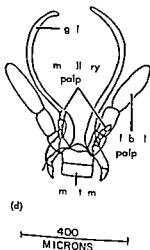
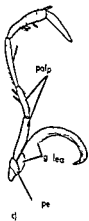
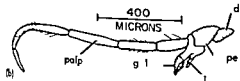
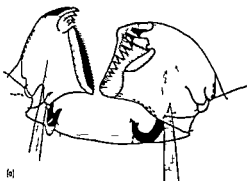


Fig. 2. Mouthparts f d l r H m () M d b l
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aryg d a l) Ma ll f E cr m p p ll
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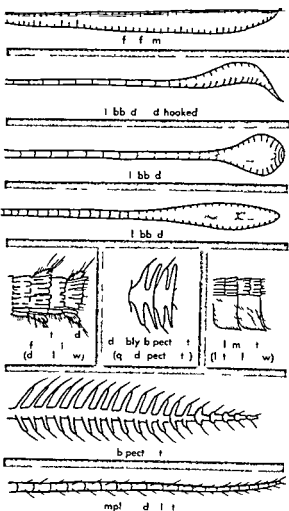


Fig 3 Typ f l p d p t t

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l n m b s 5

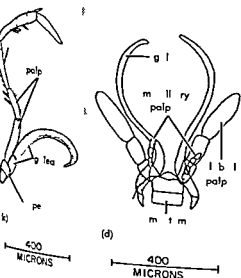
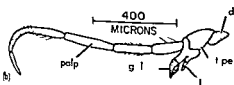
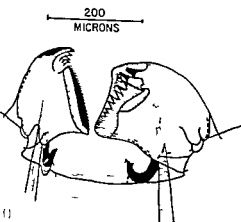
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f t h e m b l The p p e d g r p a r t l y f e e
b t h t h e d Th M c p t e r y g d e a a d E r o c r a i
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t M Tla f M rapt ry () S p (M p-
pradoe) () Ma ll f E ia mp p ll
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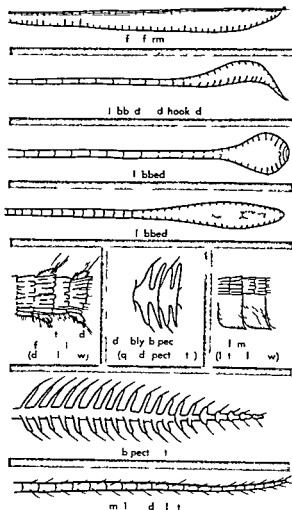


Fig 3 Typ f l p d p t a t

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d h f ee p p e wh h the m nd bles a e



Fig 4 Internal anatomy of *D pleippus* L (Nymphalidae) tracheal system and most of musculature omitted (a) Ad It female (b) Larval male



Fig 5 (a) Wings of male *Acrolophus popea* ell Clemens (Tineidae) with veins labeled (b) W g venation of *Epimortya* a (Mecopterygidae) and *Neptculnyssaefolella* Chambers (Neptculdae) (c) W gs of *Dilepp* s L (Nymphalidae) C costa; Sc subcosta; R radial sector M media C cbs 1V 2V 3V vannal veins H humeral vein subscript refers to branches (R₂ is second branch of R) (d) P othoac leg of *Papilo* (Pilionidae)

(d)

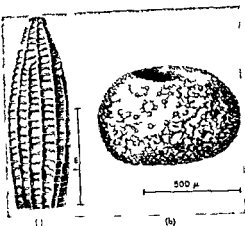
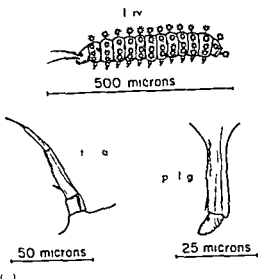


Fig 6 Eggs of butterfly s. () Strym d ca Ed
words (Lyca id) (b) A th m d H b
(Dendoe)



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CLASSIFICATION

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Suborder Homoneura (Jugatae) F e-
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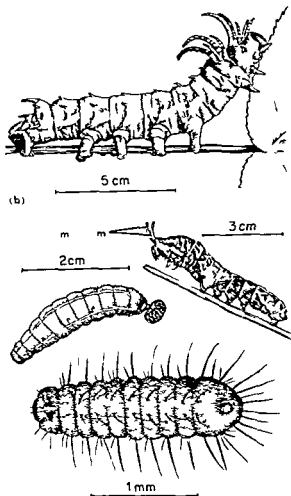


Fig 7 () Nwly h t h d lrv f M pt ry cal
th lla L (M pt rygd) (b) H k ry h m d d l
lrv f C the g l F b (S t m d)
() Skpp d b t r f y lrv M t Th ryb
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Table 1 Important families of Lepidoptera

| Classification | Common name | Distribution | No. of species |
|----------------------|---|--|----------------|
| Suborder Homoneura | | | |
| Micropterygidae | Micropterygids | Holarctic and Australia | 3 (3) |
| Friscranuidae | Friscranuids | Holarctic | 5 (0) |
| Mnesarchaeidae | Mnesarchaeids | New Zealand | |
| Hepialidae | Swift or ghost moths | Cosmopolitan | 18 (00) |
| Suborder Heteroneura | | | |
| Incurvaridae | Yucca moths and relatives | Cosmopolitan | 60 |
| Nepticulidae | Serpentine leaf miners | Cosmopolitan | |
| Cossidae | Goat or carpenter moths | Cosmopolitan | 15 |
| Aegeridae | Clearwing moths | Cosmopolitan | 10 |
| Coleophoridae | Caterpillar eaters | Cosmopolitan | 110 (900) |
| Celechidae | Gelechiids | Cosmopolitan | 590 (3800) |
| Gracilariidae | Gracilarids | Cosmopolitan | 3 |
| Heliodinidae | Heliodinids | Cosmopolitan | 1 |
| Oecophoridae | Oecophorids | largely Australian | (3000) |
| Orneodidae | Many plume moths | Cosmopolitan | 1 |
| Psychidae | Bagworm | Cosmopolitan | |
| Tineidae | Clothes moths and relatives | Cosmopolitan | 130 (00) |
| Yponomeutidae | Firmine moths | Cosmopolitan | 6 (800) |
| Olethreutidae | Olethreutids | Cosmopolitan | 15 (00) |
| Tortricidae | Tortricid | Cosmopolitan | 10 (100) |
| Thyrididae | Window winged moths | Tropical | 10 |
| Pyrallidae | Pyrallids snout moth | Cosmopolitan | 113 (1000) |
| Platystrophiae | Plume moths | Cosmopolitan | 130 |
| Eucleidae | Slur moths | Cosmopolitan | 50 (900) |
| Megalopygidae | Flannel moths | Mostly American a few African | 11 |
| Zygaenidae | Foresters and burnets | Palaearctic African and Indo-Australian | |
| Castniidae | Castnids | Neotropical and Indo-Australian | |
| Drepanidae | Hooktips | Holarctic | 6 |
| Geometridae | Measuring worms loopers canker worms carpet weavers and pupae | Cosmopolitan | 100 (1000) |
| Uranidae | Uranids | Tropical | |
| Sphingidae | Sphinx hawk or tumminid moths | Cosmopolitan | 106 (1000) |
| Lasiocampidae | Tent caterpillars lappet moths | Cosmopolitan except New Zealand mainly tropical | 30 (1400) |
| Saturniidae | Giant silkworms | Cosmopolitan | 70 |
| Bombycidae | Silkworm and allies | Tropical | 1 (introduced) |
| Arctiidae | Tiger moth | Cosmopolitan | 00 (3600) |
| Lymantriidae | Tussock moth | Large African and Indo-Malayan list with important Holarctic species | |
| Notodontidae | Ironment pupae moths | Cosmopolitan except New Zealand | 10 |
| Noctuidae | Noctuid owlet under wings moths | Cosmopolitan | 700 (0000) |
| Hesperiidae | Skippers sage worms | Cosmopolitan | 10 (3000) |
| Papilionidae | Swallowtail butterflies | Cosmopolitan | (600) |
| Pieridae | Whitesulfurs ora tips | Cosmopolitan | 61 (1000) |
| Nymphalidae | Four footed butterflies | Cosmopolitan | 11 (000) |
| Ilithidae | Snout butterflies | Cosmopolitan | 1 (1) |
| Lycaenidae | Blues coppers lar streak metal marks | Cosmopolitan | 138 (300) |

The first figure is the number of described species in North America north of Mexico. The second figure is the number of species in the world. The third figure is the number of species in the world. The fourth figure is the number of species in the world. The fifth figure is the number of species in the world. The sixth figure is the number of species in the world. The seventh figure is the number of species in the world. The eighth figure is the number of species in the world. The ninth figure is the number of species in the world. The tenth figure is the number of species in the world. The eleventh figure is the number of species in the world. The twelfth figure is the number of species in the world. The thirteenth figure is the number of species in the world. The fourteenth figure is the number of species in the world. The fifteenth figure is the number of species in the world. The sixteenth figure is the number of species in the world. 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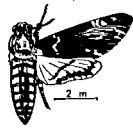
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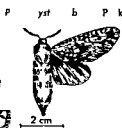
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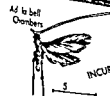
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TINEOIDEA

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MICROPTERYGOIDEA

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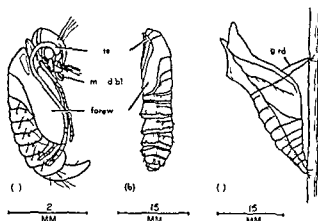


Fig 9 Pupae (a) *Mnemo caucyca* Walsh ng ham (Eiocranidae) (b) *Sthenopsis thule* Strecker (Hepalidae) (c) *Papilio tolis* L (Papilionidae)

ing toothed functional mandibles and lacking even the most rudimentary proboscis. The galea of the maxilla is short and the adults feed on pollen. The larvae which feed on moss are unusual in having eight pairs of abdominal prolegs.

It has been suggested by various authorities that these moths are actually terrestrial Trichoptera or that they should be placed in a separate order Zeugloptera. Characters of the wing venation trace the presence of broad well developed scales with numerous ridges and other features indicate that these insects are best included in the Lepidoptera.

Superfamily Eriocranoidea In this group of tiny moths the mandibles are greatly reduced and un toothed and the galeae of the maxillae form an abbreviated proboscis. Three families the Eriocranidae, Neopseuidae and Mnearchaeidae have been recognized within the superfamily. The leaf mining larva is essentially apodous (lacks legs). The adults reportedly do not feed. The females have a piercing ovipositor.

Superfamily Hepialoidea These are medium to large sized moths which possess rudimentary mouthparts. The larvae are borers. The rapid flying adults are mostly crepuscular thus the common name swift or ghost moths. The only family of importance is the Hepialidae which has about 200 species. The Nearctic species belong to the genera *Hepialus* and *Sthenopsis*. See ZOOGEOGRAPHY.

Suborder Heteroneura (Frenatae) Fore and hindwings are markedly different in shape and venation. Usually they are connected by a frenulum and retinaculum. Mouthparts are haustellate (formed for sucking) or rarely are vestigial. Adults with functional mouthparts feed on nectar of flowers, juices of rotten fruits and other liquids. The female usually has two genital openings. Pupa are usually obiect.

Superfamily Incurvarioidae One family the Incurvariidae comprises the superfamily. The wings are covered with microscopic spines or aculeae and the females have a single genital opening as in the Homoneura. The venation is almost complete. The basal segment of the antenna is not enlarged to

form an eye cap. The larvae are eed leaf tem or needle miners. In the subfamily Incurvariinae the larva is first a miner and then a cane bearer. The pupa is not completely obiect.

This superfamily includes the famous yucca moth *Tegeticula* (= *Pronuba*) *yuccasella* Riley. This small white moth has an obligatory mutualistic relationship with the yucca plant. The female gathers pollen with its specially adapted mouth parts and fertilizes the yucca flower. The eggs are laid in the plant ovary by means of a piercing ovipositor. The larvae eat some of the developing seeds.

Superfamily Nepticuloidea One family is included the Nepticulidae. These tiny moths have wing pines and the females have a single genital opening but they differ from the Incurvarioidae in having a reduced venation and a large eye cap at the base of the antenna. The larvae with the exception of some gall making species of the genus *Ectoedemia* are miners in leaf bark and rarely in fruits. Many species of the genus *Nepticula* have a wing expanse in the 3 to 5 mm range being the smallest insects in the order.

Superfamily Cossoidae One family the Cossidae commonly called the carpenter or goat moth are heavy bodied moths with the abdomen extending well beyond the hindwings. Mouthparts are rudimentary except for labial palpi. The median vein (M in Fig 5) stem extends to the base of the wing and is forked within the discal cell. The larvae are borers often tunneling in the hard wood of tree trunks. *Prionotystus robiniae* Peck is the best known American species. It is very destructive to a large variety of deciduous trees.

Superfamily Tineoidea There are 16-39 families the number varies with the author. This is a very large group of uncertain composition. These moths are of small size usually with well developed maxillary palpi. The labial palpi have a slender pointed third segment. In the hindwing the ulcus and radius (Sc + R) are free or are joined to the cell by a bar. Venation may be reduced and the wings may be divided into plumes.

Aegeriidae is the family commonly called the clearwing moths because of the large transparent scaleless areas on the wings. The Sc + R₁ vein in the hindwing is apparently absent but actually it is concealed in a costal fold. Many species are excellent mimics of wasps. They are diurnal and often brightly colored. Many of the boring larvae are economic pests. Among these are the currant borer *Ramosia tipuliformis* Clerck the peachtree borer *Sannioidea exitiosa* Say and the squash vine borer *M. litia satyriniformis* Hulnert.

Coleophoridae are small narrow winged moths whose larvae are case bearers carrying "shell" made out of silk and bits of leaf. The adults lack maxillary palpi.

Gelechiidae is a large family of minute to small moths usually with rounded or rarely pointed forewings and triangular often pointed hindwings. Venation is variable and sometime reduced.

to R radial ect r and med a M of the hind wing are stalked or cl together at the b e The larvae incl d seed feede mine s b bers gall : kers d fol g feed The f m ly includ a number f ec nom c ly impo t t insects The lagoon s grain moth, *S t t o g a cere l l e l l a* Olier af is gr t both in the fild and i st The k boll orm *P c tinoph o a g s y p i l l a* Saund an extremely imp t t w ldw de pest of t on.

Gras l rud e are small moths with l af mining larvae Both pai f w g a e l a coolate d d ly fr ged Th y g larv e a e f i t t d and have bl d l k mand bles with whi h they la h the l f the l f, su kin p the ex ding ju ces The full grown larvae e quit d f i t bei g n n f m appear e a d feeding on pare hyma ether u a l f mine externally The be t kn wn genera are *G c u l* and *L thocolletis*

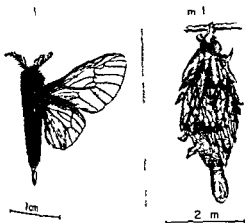


Fig. 10 Thy d p t r y p h m f m H w r th Tychidae)

Flood d is a m l l f m ly of tiny m th taks are olt n b ill tly cl r d A n mb of gror ch a *Stathm p d a d Euclem* n t a p e c i e s w h e larv t t c k d s Ororp d a e m l l t m d t l y m l l e c h s t h a c m b of b tle th p ten o the w a r e of th a n t a Th larv e r e d h b s s o m feed e b l l e d l a e s t h r e g t o r p e d t o d The g n a B a b a u s H l o c a d the e f t n p l c e d m e s e p a r t f m ly the B l a t b i d e H o l a f M r k a i m p t t p e d t o t h l a c m e t l n d a O r o r o d e a m l l f m ly w h e d l t h a r a t w i n g d e d n t s x f t h l k e p l m s S m e a b o r e p l e t h m i n t h P y a l d i d e a w t h t h e P u m p t i d e t b u t t h e m j n t y b e l t h t t h e r e m a n e e b e t w e e t h e t f a m l i e s a a o f a m e r g e n P l i d a r e t h e b a g w m T h m l e a b a r y s t r o g b o d e d w i t f l y g m o t h s w t h e d m o u t h p r i a T h e y r e l g w t h w g x

p a n s e of a b o u t 25 m m f r t h e t u e o i d s T h e f m a l e s a r e d e g e n e a t e w l l g l e a n d o f t e n s l u g l k e T h e y l i v e c o n c e a l e d n b g h p d c a e s m d e b y t h e c a t e r p i l l r s T h e b t k n o w n N o r t h A m e c n r e p e s e n t a t e s *T h y r i d p t e y x e p h e m e r e f o m* H a r t h I n t h p i t h e l a r v a f a t e n s t h e b a g t o t w g a n d p u p t w t h t T h e e r m i f o r m f e m l m g f m t h p p a a d m e s t o t h e b o t t m f t h b g w h e r h i f e r t i l i z e d T h i s c o m p l i s h e d f r o m t h e o u t s i d e b y t h e h i g h l y s p e c i a l i z e d e x t r u i b l g e n i t a l i of t h m l T h e f m a l e d e p o s i t s h e e g g s i n t h e b a g t h e n d r o p s t o t h g r d n d d

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Y p n o m e t i d h e t e r o g n e a s s r i m e n t f s m a l l t n b g l t t y c l d m o t h w h h u l l y h s m o o t h h e d d e d d o a b e t c e l l

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O l e t h r u t d i s a f a m l y o f m t h s w h o h n d w g u l l y h a f r i n g e f l i n g h a i r n t h e p p e r d l o n g t h b s a l p t o f t h c b t u T h l a r v e a r e g e n l l y h d d n f e d e r a d l e w o l l d i a e s f i l g w b b e d t e t h m d f r t T h e f m l y c o t n s a n u m b o f g l t a l l y a n d s i r b l p e i P a r a m u t m n g t h s e s t h o d l n g m o t h C p p a p o m l l L w h c h i v e r y s p t o f p p l e d t h f u t s T h l g e g u L a p e y i a c a n a n t h i n t r e t g M c a j m p b e a m t h L l t t n s W e s t w d T h e l t m e m t s f t h l a r v f t h m t h e e s p b l f o r t h e t u n o f t h b n w h l t h y i h b t

T o r t d e a f m l y w h c h g n l l y l k t h f g e f i l g h s i n g t h e b i t u h t e r s t f t h O l t h i d a T h p u e b u d w o r m C h i s t n f m f a C l m i p b b l y t h e m t i m p r t t j o t r t d I n m y p l c p e l l y E t r n C a d i t h a d f o l a t e d t o f f e f t

S p f m l y P y l d d T h e s e m o t h a r m d e t l v m l l t m e d m e d l g l e g g d d l e n d b o d e d S + R f t h h d w n g i m t a l w y u t e d f c d b l e d t n e w t h R

The maxillary palpi are usually well developed. Pyralidae is the second largest family of moths. They are small and medium sized with a wing expanse of 20–35 mm being not uncommon. The labial palpi are well developed and the broad vannal regions in the hindwings often have three vannal veins. The legs are usually long and slender. The subfamily Crambinae the snout moths contains small forms which are common in marshes and grasslands. The labial palpi are quite long and porrect giving the adults a beaked appearance. The small subfamily Galleriinae contains the bee moth or wax worm *Galleria mellonella* L. which lives in beehives. The larvae feed on the wax at night and destroy the combs. The species occurs throughout the range of the honeybee. The subfamily Nymphulinae is notable because some of the included species are aquatic. Some larvae develop tracheal gills others do not. In some species the pupa is enclosed in a cocoon below the surface of the water and the adult emerges from the water.

The subfamily Phycitinae is a large group of moths in which the frenulum of the female is a simple spine rather than a bundle of bristles. The larvae have very diverse habits being leaf rollers, case bearers, borers, stored products pests and so on. One species is predacious on coccids. The Indian meal moth *Plodia interpunctella* Hubner is described by A. D. Imms as 'one of the most important economic insects known'. The species is cosmopolitan feeding on a wide variety of stored products especially cereals. Another extremely important pest in this group is the Mediterranean flour moth *Ephestia kuehniella* Zeller which infests cereals throughout the world.

In contrast to these harmful species the Phycitinae also contains *Cactoblastus cactorum* Berg which was imported into Australia from South America to help control *Opuntia* cactus which had spread rapidly to cause the ruin of millions of acres of pasture. The success of this program is an outstanding example of biological control.

The subfamily Pyralidinae reaches its richest development in the tropics. *Pyralis farinalis* L. the meal moth is a cosmopolitan pest of stored products.

The subfamily Pyraustinae is another very large group. It contains relatively large moths many extending 30 mm or more in which vein R of the forewing is unstalked from the cell. To this subfamily belong the infamous European corn borer *Pyrausta nubilalis* Hubner, the grape leaf folder *Desmia funerals* Hubner and other economically important species.

The subfamily Schoeniniinae includes the genus *Acentropus* the most completely aquatic Lepidoptera. One form of female adult never emerges from the water. It has reduced wings for swimming.

Pterophoridae, the family known as the plume moth. The wings are divided into featherlike plumes of which there are usually two in the forewing and three in the hindwing and in the time id

Orneodidae. The moths lack maxillary palpi have slender bodies and long legs. The larvae feed exposed or are borers.

Superfamily Zygaenoidea These moderately small to medium sized moths have complete venation rudimentary palpi and usually a rudimentary proboscis. The wings are broad with short fringes. In the hindwing $Sc + R_1$ is separate from R beyond the cell. The larvae are short in length or sluglike and are exposed feeders.

Eucleidae are the slug caterpillars, a small family of heavy bodied hairy moths. The larvae are short and sluglike with a large head concealed behind the thorax. The prolegs have been replaced by two ventral suckers. The best known Nearctic form is the saddleback caterpillar *Sabine stimulea* Clemens which has urticating hair.

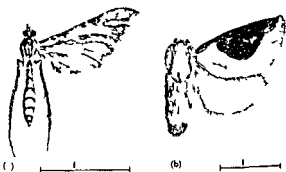


Fig. 11 (a) *Platypitia and dityla* Riley (Pterophoridae) (b) *Polma des badia* Hubner (Eucleidae)

Zygaenidae is a diverse family of small to brightly colored moths in the subfamily Hemitripteryinae which is primarily African. The hindwings are very narrow with long rill unlike tail and the body and wings are covered by long hair. The larvae of this subfamily live within termite colonies and the newly emerged moth escape from the nests under the attacks of the termites. The hairs pull free readily and the tails are pendulous.

Superfamily Castniidea One family the Castniidae is included in this group. They are large diurnal butterflylike moths with clubbed antennae, upright egg and boring larvae. A proboscis may be either present or absent. The moth are considered by some to be distantly related to the Pieridae but the resemblances may very well lead to convergence. They are found in the Neotropics and Indo Australian regions.

Superfamily Cometridae These are small to large moths with reduced maxillary palpi and a tympanal organ at the base of the abdomen. In the forewing the base of the media M_1 is usually above the apex of the discal fold. The hindwing has the same discal fold from the base of M_1 and the vannal veins $2V$ and $3V$ and a terminal fold. The frenulum may be present or absent.

Cometridae include the humming worm looper and cankerworm which are very large family of small to medium sized moths with slender bodies and relatively long wings. The

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complet set f l g

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th s b fam ly Cither n a

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(except in the Notodontidae) and 2V and 3V do not form a basal fork

Arctidae is a relatively large family of strikingly colored heavy bodied moths the tiger moths The larvae are generally very hairy and feed either exposed or in webs Larval hairs are incorporated into the silken cocoon The best known arctiid is probably the banded woolly bear caterpillar *Isia isa bella* J.E. Smith There is a widespread misconception that the banding pattern of this larva predicts the severity of the coming winter

Lymantridae (=Liparidae) are the tussock moths which are of medium size The antennae of the males are broadly pectinate The end of the female abdomen has a tuft of hairs which is deposited on top of the eggs The hairy larvae usually have prominent toothbrush tufts The most familiar species is the infamous European gypsy moth *Porthetria dispar* L. which along with the destructive brown tail moth *Nygmia phaeorrhoea* Donovan was imported into New England in the last half of the nineteenth century

Notodontidae are commonly called prominents or puss moths They are distinguished from the rest of the Noctuoidea by the apparently three branched cubitus The larvae are external feeders and the pupa is formed in a cell in the ground or in a loose cocoon on the surface The Nearctic *Datana minuscula* Drury (the yellow necked caterpillar) and *Schizura concinna* J.E. Smith (the red humped caterpillar) are pests on apples and other trees

Noctuidae (=Phalaenidae) are the owl moths an extremely large family of mostly dull colored medium sized moths The vast majority of moths which are attracted to lights belongs to this family As exemplified by the genus *Catocala* the forewings are almost always dull and cryptically colored They cover the hindwings which may or may not be strikingly colored when the insect is at rest The larvae are mostly exposed foliage feeders but a few such as *Papaipema* are borers Some of those of the genus *Eublemma* prey on caterpillars one being an important enemy of the commercially valuable lac insect Pupation is usually in the ground

The family includes many agricultural pests The cutworms *Euxoa* and *Peridroma* attack a large variety of plants as does the army worm *Leucania unipunctata* Haworth The former derive their name from the habit of cutting off shoots at the surface of the soil without consuming them the latter from the fact that they often appear in vast numbers An exceedingly important pest *Heliothis armigera* Hübner is variously known as the corn earworm cotton bollworm and tomato fruitworm Its diet may be surmised from its name

Superfamily Hesperioidea There is one rather large family the Hesperidae The kippers are small to moderately large heavy bodied mostly diurnal insects with a clubbed antenna which is bent curved or reflexed at the tip Forelegs are fully developed and bear an epiphys The forewing have all veins arising separately from the cell rarely there is one light stalking The frenu-

lum is absent except in the male of *Euschemon* The larvae have a prominent constriction or neck behind the head and often live in leaves drawn together by silk Those of the giant skipper *Megathymus* are borers in yucca and agave The pupa is usually enclosed in a slight cocoon

The name skipper refers to the rapid erratic flight of most species One familiar American species is the silver spotted skipper *Eparis clarus* Cramer another is the sachem *Atalopedes campestris* Boisduval The Australian *Euschemon stictica* MacLeay is placed in a separate subfamily largely because of the presence of a frenulum in the male In Mexico the caterpillar of the *Megathymus* are fried and canned for human consumption

Superfamily Papilionoidea These butterflies are small to large diurnal insects with clubbed antennae that are rounded at the tip and not bent or reflexed The forewings always have two or more veins which are stalked The frenulum is absent The larvae have no constriction behind the head and are usually exposed feeders The pupa is naked with the exception of *Parnassius* and relatives and is often suspended by caudal hooks the cremaster Pupa are either inverted or held in an upright position by a silken girdle

Papilionidae is a family of which swallowtails and parnassians are typical common forms These are the only butterflies with fully developed forelegs bearing an epiphys They are all unique in having the cervical sclerites joined beneath the neck The hindwings have only one well developed vannal vein except in the anomalous Mexican *Baronia brevicornis* Salvin The larvae have an ever visible forked organ on the prothorax the omerium This organ dispenses a disagreeable odor and presumably functions as a defensive mechanism The pupa is girdled In the boreal genus *Parnassius* and some other members of the family a horny pouch or sphragis is found This is secreted by the male during copulation and covers the genital opening of the impregnated female The commonest genera *Papilio* *Graphium* *Battus* and *Parides* (= *Atrophaneura*) all contain large and attractive species many of which possess the characteristic tails which give the family its name The birdwing butterfly *Ornithoptera* and *Troides* are among the largest and most beautiful species In North America the eastern tiger swallowtail *Papilio glaucus* L. has dichromatic female one form being black and yellow striped like the male and the other being entirely dark brown or black the latter presumably mimicking the protected *Aritlochis* swallowtail *Battus philenor* L The larva of the orange dog *Papilio cresphontes* Cramer is sometimes injurious to citrus

Pieridae is a family of which common members are white sulfur and range tip These butterflies are unique in lacking the prespiracular larva at the base of the abdomen The forelegs are completely developed in both sexes but lack the epiphys The tarsal claws are bifid A great many

exhibit striking sexual dimorphism. Most have all but yellow or orange in color. The representative plate of the family. Crucian (tard) Leg. min. ae (b a s pea et). Cappadocia (capers). The papae are used by a girdle as in the Papilionidae. The papae are the cabbage butterfly is on a most economically important butterfly at the moment. Europe and North America. The alfalfa butterfly *Colias eurythemis* is the major pest of alfalfa in America. Members of this family are often extremely colorful. The genus *Phaenobolus* and others migrate in huge swarms. The larvae of the vernal *Heliothis* Westwood are gregarious together in a nest.

Nymphalidae is a family of four-footed butterflies. The prothoracic legs are greatly atrophied in the larvae. The patag are always well developed. The nymphalids are the adults are tough and have a hard taste to humans. They are mostly dull in color. Most of the prolegs are in a great many more complex. The nymphalids are the adults are tough and have a hard taste to humans. They are mostly dull in color. Most of the prolegs are in a great many more complex. The nymphalids are the adults are tough and have a hard taste to humans. They are mostly dull in color. Most of the prolegs are in a great many more complex.

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Libytheidae is a small family of less than twenty species divided into two genera *Libythea* and *Libythea* called nout butterfly. The forelegs of the male are reduced and nonfunctional. The forelegs of the female are smaller than the pterothoracic legs but are used in walking. The palpi are long and correct. These butterflies are separated from the nymphalids by the structure of the prothoracic leg and by the feature of the thorax but their affinities are clearly with the Nymphalidae.

Lycaenidae is a family which includes the blues, gossamer, and metal marks. The butterflies are unique in that the melanic of the melanism is not complete to the foreca. In the male the prothoracic legs which always lack tarsal claw are functional. The subfamily the Lycaeninae are nonfunctional in the other two subfamilies Riodininae and Styginae. The forelegs of the female are smaller than the pterothoracic legs but are functional. The eyes are emarginate at the antennal bases. The larvae are mostly flat. The pupa is usually girdled. The larvae generally have a mottled coloration with which tend and protect them in return for honey dew which they excrete a few species are.

The subfamily Riodininae are small butterflies of the Neotropical region. They are small butterflies of the Neotropical region. They are small butterflies of the Neotropical region.

The subfamily Lycopseinae which includes the blue copper hairstreak and harvesters are minute. The melanism is which reverts to a metallic blue or green in the upper surface. The large species of the Austroalpine *Lophyrus basalis* Westwood with an expansion of about 75 mm. The larval silken nests and prey on the larvae. The harvesters (*Grydus spalgus* and *Fenisca*) have a predaceous larvae that feed on homopterans such as aphids, mealybugs and coccids which are attended by ants. In the United States the bean

Table 2. Important Lepidoptera

| Name | | Damage by larva | |
|-------------------------|---------------------|-------------------------|---------------------------|
| Aegrotidae | | | |
| Pea | tree bore | Feed | derba k th most m |
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| Squid | | | |
| h vi | bo | pe h | |
| M l l l l a | ty f m u s | I f e s t r u | n c u c u b t s f l e n |
| Gel | | | |
| A go m is gra m th | | Feed | n gra t rage d |
| S t o l o g | r e l l i | th f i l d | i m p o r t e d f r o m |
| P h k b o l l w r m P t | | E rope | |
| n o p h o r a | g o s t y p l l a | Feed | b o l l s u s e s f i l f |
| | | b l o s s o m t p e | m o s t i m p o |
| | | t i n s e c t n u r i | t c o l l i |
| Tineid | | | |
| C a s e m | k g l t h e s | C l t h e s m t h l r v | f e s t |
| m t h | T n e a p e l l l a | wool | p r o d t a p h l t r y |
| W b b | g l t h e s m t h | f r s | d t h d r i e d m l |
| T n e o l | b u s t u l l | p r o d t a | |
| C a p e t m t h | T i c h o p h a g a | D m g e m l t t h t b y | |
| | | t h e s m t h | b u t l e s s c o m |
| | | m | |

Table 2 Important Injurious Lepidoptera (cont)

| Name | Damage |
|-----------------------------|---|
| Olethreutidae | |
| <i>Collegma th</i> | La va bo st p ples a d ne |
| <i>Carpocapsa pomonella</i> | th r f ts m st impo t nt p st apples |
| Orntal p l motl | F d on f ts a l tw gs f |
| <i>Laspysa molata</i> | p ches plum etc |
| Tortricidae | |
| <i>Spurc l w m Ch</i> | Def l tr f a t a e s of |
| <i>isto a f nif r a</i> | co f ous f est |
| <i>Ugly n st t l l f</i> | F l o l e a d f u ts of |
| <i>r l l rs t C c</i> | (pl a do the f ts straw |
| <i>spp T l t spp</i> | be ry sh d tr e or ame tal pl nts t |
| Pyralidae | |
| <i>Ose t l bo</i> | Very d str ct to r c i A a |
| <i>Chil impl</i> | be l v s |
| <i>Be m th Gall a</i> | Dest y comba n gle ted |
| <i>mello ll</i> | be l v s |
| <i>I l n me l th</i> | W desp l pl ery impor |
| <i>Plod t rpan tlla</i> | t nt pest of d f r t d a m l products import d f m E op |
| M d tr n n flo | I fest flou t d g in |
| <i>m th Eph st</i> | c l |
| <i>k hn ll</i> | |
| <i>G ap l f f l d r</i> | Som tmes n mport nt |
| <i>D m a f ne th</i> | d f l t f b ap e |
| Geometridae | |
| <i>Sp g nk w m</i> | D f lat fr it d sh d t ces |
| <i>P l l n l</i> | s th k y rs p g c n |
| <i>f l c nk rw m</i> | k w m o w nt rs a |
| <i>tl ph la p m t a</i> | p p f l l nk w rm an egg |
| Sphingidae | |
| <i>Tom t h r wo m</i> | Large l r e e m t |
| <i>Phl geth tu</i> | p p sts of t m to d |
| <i>q u m l t</i> | t b c lso f lo th |
| <i>t la o ho worm P</i> | sol n ceous pla ts |
| <i>erlus</i> | |
| Lasocampidae | |
| <i>T nt t pl l r</i> | S u d fol tors f f est |
| <i>M l os n a spp</i> | h l d cl dices |
| Arctiidae | |
| <i>F l w l w m</i> | F d w l n ty of f t |
| <i>Hyph n t i una</i> | h l n l f t t es |
| Lymantriidae | |
| <i>Eu pe n gypsy moth</i> | Impo t nt def l t off est |
| <i>P r th l d pa</i> | h l nd f t t es i Nw England |
| Brown t l moth | S m l t gypsy m th |
| <i>Nygma ph co hoe</i> | |
| Noctuidae | |
| <i>Cutwo m E oa pp</i> | N m p e es l m g |
| <i>P idrom pp tc</i> | many rop pl nt |
| <i>A my w rm Le n</i> | V e s t m l u l y i t |
| <i>u p r t la</i> | d ne e i p d y rs t |
| | foes g t l m g to co i |
| | tl g es |
| Co e worm cotton | F e e l gly mpo t nt cosmo |
| <i>ball w m t m t</i> | p o l t n pest t k g m y |
| <i>f tw rm tol cco</i> | lt ated pl ts |
| <i>b l w rm H l th</i> | |
| <i>a m g a</i> | |
| Perididae | |
| <i>C b bag t t f l es</i> | Pests f v r n l t v ted |
| <i>P u pp espec lly</i> | cr f rs |
| <i>P apae i U ted</i> | |
| <i>St tea</i> | |
| Alf l f b t r fly | Impo t t pest of alf l l in |
| <i>Col a r v th m</i> | so th west rn U ted St tes |

lycaenid *Strymon melinus* Hubner has at times been an important pest of hops

BIOLOGICAL ASPECTS OF LEPIDOPTERA

The Lepidoptera are a group of insects on which much biological research remains to be done. A great deal is still unknown about the genetic physiology and ecology of this group. Moreover, butterflies and moths have proved useful as experimental animals in genetical research.

Ecology and distribution The variation in habits is discussed under the different families. Lepidoptera of all stages are subject to the attack of a large number of predators including birds, mammals, lizards, frogs, and spiders. They are also much preyed upon by rapacious insects such as dragonflies, mantids, phymatid pentatomids, and ichneumonids. Some wasps (Sphecidae) paralyze caterpillars, oviposit in them, and place them in peculiarly constructed cells. Others (Ichneumonidae) place their eggs in the caterpillars without paralyzing them. In either case the caterpillars serve as food for the growing wasp larvae. In some cases, some chalcids oviposit in the eggs of Lepidoptera.

One mite, *Myrmonyx phalaenodectes* Treat, infests the tympanum of a variety of moths, and another, *Otopheidomenus zalesis* Treat, is restricted as far as is known to the genus *Zile*. Pseudoscorpions of the genera *Atemnus*, *Stenonothus*, and *Apocheridium* have been found on adults of various species. Lepidoptera are also subject to viral, bacterial, protozoan, and fungal infections.

The Lepidoptera penetrate almost every corner of the globe, with the major exception of Antarctica. Butterflies of the genus *Holoria* have been taken at Alert on northern Ellesmere Island, about 400 miles from the North Pole. Arctic and alpine tundra areas normally support a lepidopteran fauna, which although relatively poor in species is rich in numbers. After rain, desert areas are often alive with butterflies and moths. Tropical areas are likewise rich in species. One of the strangest habitats occupied by a lepidopteran is the hair of the neotropical three-toed sloth, where the sloth moth *Bradypodidra hahneli* Spuler, a pyralid, passes its entire life cycle presumably feeding on algae which grow in the hair. The following outline indicates some of the habitats of larval Lepidoptera.

1. Plant association
 - a. Feeding exposed on foliage, flowers, or plant lice
 - b. Feeding on foliage in wet or cave
 - c. Leaf and needle mining
 - d. Living under bark
 - e. Boring in stem, root, fruit, or seed
 - f. In oil seedling on roots
 - g. Boring in or feeding on fungi, moss, lichens, or worm clut moss, lichen, and fern
 - h. Living in dried plant products such as cereal flour, dried fruit, refuse, hibernum, peat, men

Table 2 Important Injurious Lepidoptera (cont)

| N m | Damage |
|---|---|
| Olethreutidae | |
| Codl g moth <i>C. p. ap. pom. n. l.</i> | Larvae on apples and some other fruits in most important pest of apples |
| Oat leaf moth <i>Laspeyresia m. l.</i> | Feeds on fruits and twigs of peach, plum, etc. |
| Tortricidae | |
| Spruce budworm <i>Choristoneura fumiferana</i> | Defolator of vast areas of coniferous forest |
| Ugly leaf miner <i>Agallia c. a. oec. spp.</i> | Feeds on leaves and fruits of apple, other fruits, tobacco, etc. |
| Pyralidae | |
| Oat root borer <i>Chilodactylus</i> | Very destructive to cereals |
| Bombardier beetle <i>Meloe</i> | Destroys mushrooms neglected beehives |
| Indian meal moth <i>Plodia interpunctella</i> | Widespread and very important pest of dried foodstuffs and many products imported from Europe |
| Worm-eating moth <i>Ephestia</i> | Infests flour, stored grain, etc. |
| Cattle leaf miner <i>D. m. f. l.</i> | Sometimes important defoliator of grasses |
| Geometridae | |
| Spiny-legged worm <i>P. l. t. r. t. f. l. k. w. m.</i> | Defoliator of trees and shrubs, etc. |
| <i>Altophilus p. m. l.</i> | Defoliator of trees and shrubs, etc. |
| Sphingidae | |
| Tomato hornworm <i>P. g. t. h. t. u. s.</i> | Larvae are most common pests of tomato and other solanaceous plants |
| <i>q. q. m. l. s.</i> | |
| <i>l. l. a. c. c. h. o. w. m. P. s. z. l. u. s.</i> | |
| Lasioleptidae | |
| Tree caterpillars <i>M. l. c. m. p. p.</i> | Severe defoliators of forest trees |
| Arctidae | |
| Flannel webworm <i>H. p. n. t. a. n.</i> | Feeds on a variety of forest shrubs and trees |
| Lymantriidae | |
| European gypsy moth <i>P. t. h. l. i. d. u. p. a.</i> | Important defoliator of forest trees in North America |
| <i>N. g. m. p. h. e. o. r. h. o. e.</i> | Similar to gypsy moth |
| Noctuidae | |
| Cottonworm, <i>Euxoa</i> spp. <i>P. d. r. o. m. a. s. p. p. t.</i> | Not a pest of cotton in North America |
| Armyworm, <i>Leucania</i> <i>u. n. p. u. n. c. t. a.</i> | Very destructive to many crops, etc. |
| Corn earworm, cotton bollworm, tomato fruitworm, tobacco budworm, <i>H. l. o. t. h. s. m. g. a.</i> | Feeds on many important cosmopolitan pests of many cultivated plants |
| Perididae | |
| Cabbage butterfly, <i>Pieris</i> <i>P. r. a. p. a. U. t. e. d. S. t. e. s.</i> | Pests of various cultivated crops |
| Alfalfa butterfly <i>Colias</i> | Important pest of alfalfa in the western United States |

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The Lepidoptera penetrate almost every corner of the globe with the major exception of Antarctica. Butterflies of the genus *Polaria* have been taken at Alert on northern Ellesmere Island about 400 miles from the North Pole. Arctic and alpine tundra areas normally support a lepidopteran fauna which although relatively poor in species is rich in numbers. After rain, desert areas are often alive with butterflies and moths. Tropical areas are by far the richest in species. One of the strange habits occupied by a lepidopteran is the hair of the neotropical three-toed sloth where the sloth moth *B. ad. podicola kahneli* Spuler a pyralid parasite its entire life cycle presumably feeding on algae which grow in the hair. The following outline indicates some of the habits of larval lepidoptera.

- Plant associations, terrestrial
 - Feeding exposed on large flowers or plants
 - Feeding on foliage in web or case
 - Leaf and needle mining
 - Living under bark
 - Boring in stem, root, fruit or seeds
 - In soil, feeding on roots
 - Boring in or feeding on fungi, moss, lichen, etc.
 - Living in dried plant products such as cereals, flour, dried fruit, refuse, herbarium specimens

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Lepidosauria

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Table 2 Important Injurious Lepidoptera (cont)

| N me | D m g i y l |
|--|--|
| Olethreutidae | |
| Coll g moth C poc ps p mo ella | L bo ppl nd som other fru t m st impo tant pest of pples |
| O nt l p ch moth Laspey s m l t | Feeds n f ts l tw gs of p ches plum etc |
| Tortricidae | |
| Spruce bulbwo m Cho- usto ra fum f | Defol t f t f o f o f est |
| Ugly t to t d l af ollers to Ca oec pp T l iz spp | F d on l f f ts of apples nd oth f ts t w be y sh let ees o n m nt l pl nt tc |
| Pyralidae | |
| Orient l ce bore Chil mpl x | Very dest u t to A |
| Bee m tl C l m ll n ll | D t oy comba in n gl cted l h |
| I dan m l m th Plod t p nel ll | W lesp l l ery impo tant p t of l f t d imal pol t mp tel f o Fu p |
| Med t ne n fl u moth Ephes ku hn ll | I f t flow t ed g l |
| G pel f fller D sm f al | Som t m s an s po t t l f l t fg p |
| Geometridae | |
| Sp g c k rwo m Pl r t ent f ll c nk w m Alsoph l pom t | D fl tef t d sh l t tb ky rs ap g k rw mo w ters p p fl l k w m n egg |
| Sphingidae | |
| Tom t l w m Phl g th t q q m c l l us toba oh w m P ext | La g l r most c n sp o pest f tom to l t l cco lo f lo th sol eo pl nts |
| Lasocampidae | |
| T nt t pill rs M l m pp | S o s d f l t f f t h l lo l l tr es |
| Arctidae | |
| Fl w b worm Hlyph l c ne | Feed on w f ty of f est, al l d f t tr es |
| Lymantriidae | |
| Eu p n gypsy m th Po th l a d spa | Impo ta t l f l t f f t l l f f t t ees i N w F gl d |
| Bow t l m th Nyg i ph eo hoca | Sml to gypsy m th |
| Noctuidae | |
| Cutw F oa pp Pe drom pp t | N m pec es l m g n y crop pl nt |
| Arm y w m Le u p l t | V est m l ly t l ce p l m y co rs t loesg t l m g to corn l th gr sses |
| Co n rwo m cott hollow m t m t fr lw m t l co b lw rm l l t ths m g ra | I eed gly impo t t cosmo- pol t n pest t k i g m y c l t ted p l t |
| Peridae | |
| C l bage l t t fies, P r s pp espec lly P pa l U ted St tes | Pests f i l t ted cru frs |
| Alf l f l t fly Col r y th m | Impo t t pest f l f i so thwest U lted St tes |

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BIOLOGICAL ASPECTS OF LEPIDOPTERA

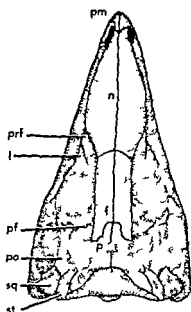
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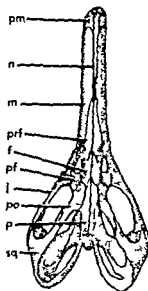
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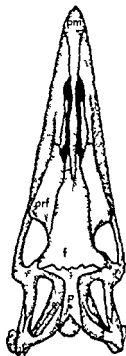
- 1 Plant association terrestrial
 - a Feeding exposed on foliage, flower or plant lice
 - b Feeding on foliage in winter case
 - c Leaf and needle mining
 - d Lying under bark
 - e Boring in stem, root, fruit or seed
 - f In soil feeding root
 - g Boring in or feeding on fungi, moss, lichen, etc.
 - h Lying in dried plant material
 - i Lying in or feeding on fruit refuse, etc.



(a)



(b)



(c)

Lepidosauiran reptiles showing dorsal view of skulls
 p parietal po postorbital sq squamosal f frontal
 pf postfrontal prf prefrontal l jugal m maxilla
 n nasal pm postmaxilla st supratemporal l lacrimal
 (a) *Yongina* a primitive two-arched reptile from the
 Upper Permian of South Africa length about 2½ in
 (after R. Broom D. M. S. Watson and E. C. Olson)

(b) *Champsosaurus* a Late Cretaceous and early Tertiary amphibious form length about 13¼ in (after B. Brown)
 (c) *Tylosaurus* a mosasaur length about 38 in (after S. W. Williston) (From A. S. Romer Vertebrate Paleontology University of Chicago 2nd ed 1945)

Order Squamata This order consists of two suborders (1) the Lacertilia or lizards (including mosasaurs) which have a single upper temporal fenestra and (2) the Ophidia or snakes which have lost both temporal arches. See **SQUAMATA**

Suborder Lacertilia In the lizards the lower jaw is united at midline the teeth are acrodont to pleurodont and the vertebrae are amphiocoelous (geckos) to procoelous. Osteoderms frequently are present in the skin. The group is apparently derived from rhynchocephalians and includes modern lizards (two being poisonous *Heloderma suspectum* and *H. horridum*) and extinct marine mosasaurs (Cretaceous). They range from Jurassic to Recent.

Suborder Serpentes (Ophidia) The snakes are elongate limbless derivatives of monitorlike lizards showing adaptation to burrowing swimming or brush dwelling without pectoral or pelvic girdles except for remnants of the latter in primitive forms. The lower jaw is united by a ligament the quadrate is movable there is no parietal foramen and vertebrae are numerous and procoelous. The teeth are acrodont and recurved. The maxillary teeth of several groups have grooves or enclosed channels for poison. There are arboreal terrestrial aquatic and marine forms. They range from the Late Cretaceous (*Dinilysia* South America) to Recent. Included in the suborder are blind ophidrid worm snakes vipetids pit vipers elapids and sea snakes.

Lepospondyli

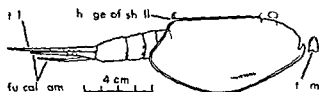
A term used to characterize amphibian groups in which the vertebral centra basically spoon shaped are formed by ossification directly around the notochord in contrast to the anisospindylous structure seen in the Labyrinthodontia where the centra ossify in blocks of cartilage formed well outside the notochord. The term Lepospondyli meaning husk vertebra has been variously used sometimes including only a restricted number of Paleozoic forms but more recently utilized as a subclade name to include all amphibians whose vertebrae are formed in this general fashion. See **AMPHIBIA FOSSILS**

In the Paleozoic the larger amphibians were labyrinthodonts but small lepospondyls appear to have been very abundant as water dwellers particularly in the coal swamp. The forms are commonly grouped to form three orders: the Nectridia, the Aistopoda and the Microsauria. The modern orders Urodela and Apoda have a basically lepospondylous structure they are probably descended from one of the Paleozoic lepospondylous orders (Microsauria) and hence may be included in the Lepospondyli in a broad sense. Except for the Devonian Ichthyopterygids the oldest known fossil amphibians are lepospondyls and the group is thought by some to have been dominant in the pentapleth from Silurian to Devonian. **AISTOPODA CYMNORHINA MICROSAURIA NECTRIDIA** [498]

Leptostraca

A small and unimportant group of Crustacea formerly ranked with the Branchiopoda but now regarded as the most primitive of the Malacostraca. Only a few genera like *Aebania* have survived to the present time but numerous apparently related Paleozoic fossils are known.

The Leptostraca differ from the rest of the higher Crustacea the Eumalacostraca chiefly in having an additional abdominalomite which never bears appendages, a telopod bearing two movably articulated prongs, the furcal ramus, and an adductor muscle connecting the two halves of the shell or carapace. The telopod is a primitive feature and indicate that the Leptostraca diverged from the main Malacostracan stock before the emergence of the typical carideid form. The lamellar thoracic limbs are highly specialized, not primitive. The alliance of the group with the other Malacostraca is amply justified by the agreement in number of the appendages by the harpdistinction between the thoracic and abdominal series and by the position of the genital openings. They are most closely related to the Mysidacea especially in their mode of development. Mysids like *Hemimysis* are now known to have an embryonic caudal furca which is shed at the first molt and a seventh abdominalomite which later fuses more or less completely with the sixth one.



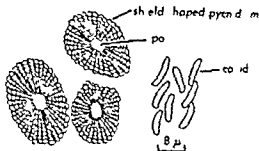
Ceaticostyga Salter, a fossil leptostracan. (After T. R. Jones and D. H. Woodward, A Monograph of British Palaeozoic Phyllopoda (Phyllocarida Part I) Palaeontographical Society.)

The fossil Leptostraca are the oldest known Malacostraca, ranging from the Cambrian to the Triassic epoch (see illustration). Since they are already well differentiated in the earliest fossiliferous rock, they had no light on the possible origin of the Malacostraca. See MALACOSTRACA, NEBALIACEA, PHYLLOCARIDA. [160]

Bibliography: T. R. Jones and H. Woodward, A Monograph of the British Palaeozoic Phyllopoda (Phyllocarida Part I) 1888-1889; Van Straelen and C. Schmitz, Crustacea Phyllocarida (= Archaostrotraca) Faunula Catalogus, part 61, 1934.

Leptostromataceae

A family of fungi of the order Sphaeriales. Although most species are saprophytic, some are fruit tree pathogens. Pycnidia on the fruit are black, elongated, slightly humped, or obovate, or of long and slightly asymmetrical opening of the pycnidium, long and tubelike. There are



Pycnidia and conidia of *Leptothyrium* magnifica.

80 genera and 345 species recognized. Many of the genera are conidial stages of Hemiphysalids (order Ascomycetes).

The important genera of the Hyalopores, whose pores are 1-celled and bright (hyaline) are a follow.

Leptothyrium with approximately 100 species. The pycnidium is typically shieldlike. *L. pomica* causes apple fly peck.

Leptostroma with long and thin pycnidia. *L. pinastri* is a stage of *Lophoderium pinastri* (Ascomycete).

Melasma with pycnidia lying in a flattened stroma. *Melasma* species are imperfect stages of *Rhytisma* (Ascomycete).

A representative genus of the Hyalodismas (pores 2-celled and hyaline) is *Gloeodes* (hyaline) similar to *Leptothyrium* but the pycnidia of *Gloeodes* are gelatinous. *G. pomigena* causes rot of apple. See FUNGI IMPERFECTI, PLANT DISEASE, SPHAEROPIDACEAE. [160]

Lernaeopodoida

A group of Crustacea known as the fish maggot which are ectoparasites, partially buried in the flesh of marine and freshwater fish. They are characterized by (1) a modified postembryonic development reduced to two or three recognizable stages, (2) a unique free-swimming larva, and (3) failure when sexually mature to show signs of external physical maturity typical of their group. The female, lacking distinct segmentation and functional thoracic appendages, appears in fish as a comparatively large wormlike, metamorphosed, unsegmented, male (illustration b) are dwarfed and though more distinctly segmented do not exceed female morphological development. Upon modified head appendages they cling to the female (illustration a) but retain no free locomotory movement.

A sequence of R. Curney, discussed in *Lernaeopodida* in 1933 and C. R. Walcott's account of the free-swimming stage of Sphyruridae in 1917, the *Lernaeopodida* are limited in this account to the families *Lernaeopodidae* and *Sphyruridae*. Characteristic distinguishing features of the families are associated with the relative size of the female and the male, the number of segments of the body, and the shape of the head.

Life cycle. The immature stages of the female, with the egg and the young of the embryo, are in a nauplius stage of development with a tail in the elongated ventral process of the female.

The use of the concept of LD_{50} is not restricted to toxicology because there are many therapeutic substances such as digitalis which can be assayed more conveniently by their lethal effect than by their therapeutic effect. The same active principle is involved in both effect. See BIOASSAY EFFECTIVE DOSE 50 TOXICOLOGY [CWH]

Lethal gene

A gene which brings about the death of the organism in which carries it either when homozygous (that is a recessive lethal) or when heterozygous (that is a dominant lethal). Lethal genes constitute a very common class of gene changes and are a reflection of the fact that genes control the processes essential to growth and development of organisms. Dominant lethal genes are rapidly eliminated but the recessives are retained with considerable frequency in natural populations of cross-fertilizing organisms.

Many lethal mutations have proved to be losses of small or large sections of chromosomal material rather than gene changes in the strict sense. When lethal mutation or losses occur the effect is expressed as a failure of growth or as an abnormal course of development leading to the death of the organism carrying them. Most detectable lethal genes are recessive and are expressed only when homozygous. If the processes controlled by a particular gene come early in the developmental sequence the disturbance produced by its loss or mutation is often severe and extensive. If the processes occur later in the sequence the disturbance usually has fewer ramifications. An analysis of the effects of lethal genes provides a valuable means of investigating the complex processes of embryological and later development and in the case of man has practical medical implications as well. In microorganisms the study of lethal biochemical mutants has opened a new era in the unravelling of biosynthetic processes.

The following are examples of lethal mutants: biochemical lethals in the microorganisms *Neurospora* and *Escherichia*; lethal chlorophyll mutants of higher plants. Notch and many others in the fruit fly *Drosophila*; Creeper in fowl. Yellow Brachyury W anemia in the mouse. Gray lethal in the rat. Dexter in cattle. thalassaemia sickle cell anemia and many others in man. See CRYSTALLIZATION HUMAN GENETICS [DFP]

Bibliography E. Hsd in *Faktoren in ihrer Bedeutung für Erbpathologie und Genphysiologie der Entwicklung* 1935

Lettuce

A cool season annual (*Lactuca sativa*) of Asian origin and belonging to the plant order Campanulales. Lettuce is grown for its succulent leaves. Four varieties of this leading salad crop which are grown are head lettuce (*L. sativa* var. *capitata*), leaf or curled lettuce (*L. sativa* var. *crispata*), cos or romaine lettuce (*L. sativa* var. *longifolia*)

and stem or asparagus lettuce (*L. sativa* var. *asparagifolia*). There are two types of head lettuce: butterhead and crisphead or iceberg.

Propagation The outdoor crop is propagated by seed usually planted directly in the field but also occasionally planted in greenhouses for later transplanting. Field spacing varies; plants are commonly grown 10–16 in apart in 14–20 in rows. Greenhouse lettuce predominantly leaf and butterhead varieties is transplanted to ground beds with plants placed 7–12 in apart.

Uniformly cool weather promotes maximum yield of high quality lettuce. 55–65°F is optimum. Heading varieties are particularly sensitive to adverse environment. High temperatures prevent heading, encourage seed stalk development and result in bitter flavor and tipburned leaves. However, varieties vary considerably in their resistance to the high temperature effect and to disease. Commercial production of lettuce is extensive in several California and Arizona valleys where mild winter and cool summer climate prevail.

Crisphead or iceberg lettuce is the most widely grown type. Strains of the Great Lakes and Imperial varieties account for most of the acreage. Popular varieties of other types of head lettuce are Butterhead Bibb and White Boston. Grand Rapids or romaine and White Paris are popular types of leaf lettuce.

Harvesting The harvesting of heading varieties begins when the heads have become firm enough to satisfy market demands, usually 60–80 days after planting. Most western grown lettuce is field packed in paperboard cartons and chilled by vacuum cooling.

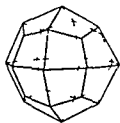
Leaf lettuce and cos lettuce are harvested when full sized but before the development of seed stalks or a bitter taste. This varies from 40–60 days after planting.

California raises more lettuce than any other state. Arizona and Texas are next in importance. Total annual farm value in the United States is approximately \$123,000,000. See CAMPAULALES VEGETABLE CROPPING [HSC]

Diseases of lettuce Lettuce diseases of greatest importance are caused by fungi and bacteria which disrupt the structure and function of the invaded parts, causing malformation, discoloration and breakdown of tissues. The injuries produced are usually classified as spots, rots, scald, wilt or blight.

The most serious fungus diseases are anthracnose and blight. *Sclerotinia* rot, *Sclerotinia sclerotiorum*, gray mold rot, *Botrytis cinerea*, downy mildew, *Bremia lactucae*, anthracnose, *Marschneria panattoniana* and lettuce root rot, *Fusarium filiforme*. Several fungi cause tipburn.

The most serious insect pests are the lettuce root fly, *Delia floralis*, both of which cause soft rot. Soft rot is especially damaging when they follow injury and disease. Lettuce wilt and tipburn.



Leucite showing trapezohedral habit of crystal (From C. S. H. J. but Jr. ed. *Daas Manual of Mineralogy* 16th ed. Wiley 1952)

netite and other minerals arranged radially or in a concentric manner. Its most noted occurrence is in the rocks of central Italy, particularly as phenocrysts in the lavas of Vesuvius. In the United States it is found in the Leucite Hills, Wyoming, and in the Highwood and Bear Paw Mountains, Montana. Pseudoleucite, a mixture of nepheline, analcime, and orthoclase, is found in pseudomorphs after leucite. See LEUCITE ROCK, PHENOCRYST.

[C. S. H.]

Leucite rock

Igneous rocks rich in leucite but lacking or poor in alkali feldspar. The e types with essential alkali feldspar are classified as phonolites, feldspathoidal syenite, and feldspathoidal monzonite. The group includes an extremely wide assortment both chemically and mineralogically.

The rocks are generally dark colored and aphanitic (not visibly crystalline) types of volcanic origin. They consist principally of pyroxene and leucite and may or may not contain calcic plagioclase or olivine. Types with plagioclase in excess of 10% are called leucite basalt (if olivine is present) and leucite tephrite (if olivine is absent). Types with 10% or less plagioclase are called leucite (if olivine is absent) and olivine leucite or leucite basalt (if olivine is present).

The texture is usually porphyritic with large crystals (phenocrysts) of augite and leucite in a very fine grained or partly glassy matrix. If plagioclase occurs as phenocryst, it is generally labradorite or bytownite and is slightly more calcic than that of the rock matrix. It may be zoned with more calcic core surrounded by more sodic margin. Leucite appears in two generations. As large phenocryst, it forms slightly rounded to octagonal shaped grains with abundant tiny inclusions of glass or other minerals zonally arranged. Small round grains of leucite with tiny glass inclusions also occur in the rock matrix. Augite or diopside (sometimes rimmed with aegirine-augite) and aegirine-augite form the mafic phenocryst. Pyroxene of the matrix is commonly soda-rich. Olivine may occur as well formed phenocryst. Other minerals present may include nepheline, sodalite, bitite, hornblende, and melilitite. Accessory inclusions magnetite, ilmenite, apatite, and perovskite.

Leucite rocks are rare. They occur principally as lava flows and small intrusions (dike and

canic plugs). Well known are the leucite rocks of the Roman province in Italy and the eastern African province. In the Italian area the feldspathoidal lavas are essentially leucite basalt and have developed by differentiation of basaltic (rock melt). In the African province the leucite rocks are associated with ultramafic (peridotite) rocks and may have been derived from peridotite material. This may have been accomplished by abstraction of early formed crystals from a peridotite magma or by the mobilization of peridotite by emanations from depth. A similar effect of stone by basaltic magma may help to decrease silica content and promote the formation of leucite instead of potash feldspar. The crystallization of leucite however is in large part a function of temperature and water content of the magma. Conditions of formation therefore may strongly influence the formation of leucite rock. See LEUCITE ROCKS, NEPHELINE SYENITE, PETROGRAPHIC INDEX, PHONOLITE. [C. A.]

Leucosolenia

An order of the subclass Calcarenea in the phylum Calcarea. The members have an aconoid structure. A true dermal membrane or cortex does not develop in this order and the pongocoelous type with choanocytes. One family, the Leucosoleniidae, is recognized. *Leucosolenia* and *Ascyssa* are examples of this order. See CALCAREA. See also CALCARONEA. [W. B.]

Leukemia

A disease of mammals characterized by a marked increase in the number of white cells (leukocytes) in the circulating blood. An increased number of circulating white cells (leukocytosis) is found in many diseases, especially infectious diseases, in the disease of the spleen, when the underlying disease process subsides, and represents a reaction of the body to the infectious process. In leukemia, on the other hand, the leukocytes persist and progress independently of any obvious cause, and the condition is eventually fatal. During the course of the disease the white cells are distributed throughout the body and eventually infiltrate the organs.

Normal white cells are produced in the marrow of the healthy individual and are the erythrocytes of the circulating blood. In the leukemic patient the bone marrow is the chief source of production of the numerous circulating white cells. Leukemia may be primarily regarded as a form of cancer of the bone marrow in which leukocyte-producing tissue is anaplastic, that is, in the red cells producing tissue is the marrow known as polycythemia. In this condition there is a marked increase in the number of circulating white cells (Fig. 1). See HEMATOLOGY.

Classification. The leukemias are usually classified according to the type of cells that are increased in the blood. On the basis of this classification, the leukemias are divided into four main types: (1) acute lymphocytic leukemia, (2) chronic lymphocytic leukemia, (3) acute myelogenous leukemia, and (4) chronic myelogenous leukemia.

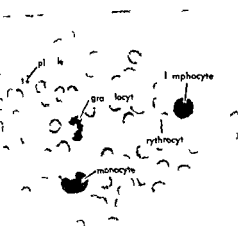


Fig. 1 Normal blood smear showing granulocyte, lymphocyte, monocyte, and clump of platelets.

may be cut with a total count of less than a year or less than a year. Acute leukemia may also be classified according to the type of cell involved. Lymphocytic (also called lymphocytic) leukemia (Fig. 2a) the predominant cell resembles the granulocyte or polymorph leukocyte of the normal blood. Lymphocytic (or lymphatic) leukemia (Fig. 2b) characterized by a cell corresponding to the normal lymphocyte and the less common monocyte leukemia (Fig. 2c) by the presence of monocytes. The different leukemias vary in the clinical manifestations.

During the development of the white cell in the bone marrow the appearance of the cell changes. The youngest form is a variety of cell which resembles the primitive stem cell which by continuous mitotic division produces the normal blood cells. As the cell matures it becomes more specialized, taking on the appearance of the mature cells and finally entering the blood. Characteristically, the leukemia (Fig. 2d) the immature cell that matures and enters the blood at an early stage of development. The threshold of the maturing

blood are morphologically immature. In chronic leukemia most of the cells reach a considerable degree of maturity before they are released although some young forms are always present. In studying the nature of leukemia it is possible to predict whether it will follow an acute or a chronic course by analyzing the degree of maturity of the cells in the circulating blood.

Granulocyte leukemia involves the granulocytes or polymorphonuclear cell which is the cell that by their capacity to ingest and destroy bacteria are important in the defense of the body against infection. Lymphocyte which are involved in the other common form of leukemia have a poorly understood function. Normally most of them are not found in the marrow but in small organs scattered throughout the body known as lymph nodes. However, they are normally present in marrow and in lymphocytic leukemia the marrow is overrepresented in all stages of development. The uncommon monocyte leukemia involves the monocyte, a motile phagocytic cell that is closely related or identical to the macrophage, wandering all found in the tissue of the body. Monocyte leukemia usually follows an acute or subacute course.

Aggregates of diseased cells related to the leukemias are the lymphomas. These are neoplastic invasions of the cells of the lymph nodes and often of the marrow without release of the proliferating cells into the circulating blood. The tumor tends to remain localized for a considerable period of time but eventually involves many parts of the body. Some forms of lymphoma differ from the lymphocytic leukemia only in the absence of the histiocyte cell in the peripheral blood. In fact, the release of lymphoma will have gone to the nodal lymphatic leukemia but the growth of the cells to the blood. Neoplastic proliferation of the granulocyte cells in the marrow with the leukemia of the circulating blood is rare. The extremely delayed growth of the proleukemic leukemia is leukemia. They often represent the preleukemic phase of the leukemia and usually follow with some degree of Se. Blood

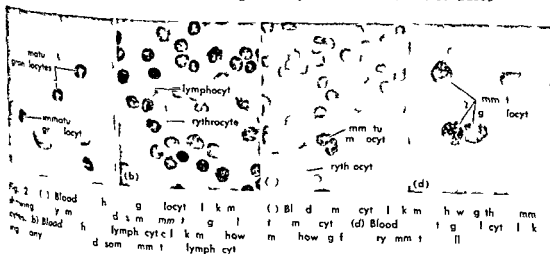
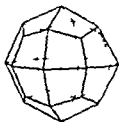


Fig. 2 (a) Blood smear showing mature granulocytes and immature granulocytes. (b) Blood smear showing lymphocytes and erythrocytes. (c) Blood smear showing monocytes and erythrocytes. (d) Blood smear showing a large monocyte and erythrocytes.



Leucite showing trapezohed of habit of crystal (From C. S. Hudson, *J. ed. Dana's Manual of Mineralogy* 16th ed. Wiley 1952)

netite and other minerals arranged radially or in a concentric manner. Its most noted occurrence is in the rocks of central Italy particularly as phenocrysts in the lavas of Vesuvius. In the United States it is found in the Leucite Hills Wyoming and in the Highwood and Bear Paw Mountains Montana. Leucite is a mixture of nepheline analcime and orthoclase is found in pseudomorphs after leucite. See LEUCITE ROCK PHENOCRYST.

[C. S. HUDSON]

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The texture is usually porphyritic with large crystals (phenocrysts) of augite and leucite in a very fine grained or partly glassy matrix. If plagioclase occurs as phenocrysts it is generally labradorite or bytownite and is slightly more calcic than that of the rock matrix. It may be zoned with more calcic core surrounded by more sodic margins. Leucite appears in two generations. A large phenocryst it forms slightly rounded to tabular shaped grains with abundant tiny inclusions of glass or other minerals zonally arranged. Small round grains of leucite with tiny glass inclusions also occur in the rock matrix. Augite is idiocrystic (sometimes rimmed with aegirine augite) and aegirine augite is fine grained phenocryst. Pyroxene of the matrix is commonly aegirine. Olivine may occur as well formed phenocrysts. Other minerals present may include nepheline sodalite leucite hornblende and melilite. Accessories include apatite and perovskite.

Leucite rock are rare. They occur principally in the form of small intrusions (dykes and veins)

canic plugs). Well known are the leucite rock of the Roman province in Italy and the leucite African province. In the Italian area the feldspathoidal lavas are essentially leucite basalt and have developed by differentiation of basaltic magma (rock melt). In the African province the leucite rocks are associated with ultramafic (peridotite) rocks and may have been derived from peridotite material. This may have been accomplished by extraction of early formed crystals from a peridotite magma or by the mobilization of peridotite by emanations from depth. A simulation of leucite by basaltic magma may help to decrease silica content and promote the formation of leucite in stead of potash feldspar. The crystallization of leucite however is in large part a function of temperature and water content of the magma. Conditions of formation therefore may strongly influence the formation of leucite rock. See LEUCITE ROCKS NEPHELINE SYENITE PETROGRAPHIC MINERAL PHONOITE. [C. S. HUDSON]

Leucosoleniida

An order of the subclass Calcarea in the class Spongia. The sponges have an acanthopore structure. A true dermal membrane or cortex does not develop in this order and the spongocoels are lined with choanocytes. One family, the Leucosoleniidae, is recognized. *Leucosolenia* and *Ascyria* are examples of this order. See CALCAREA; see also CALCAREAN. [W. D. B.]

Leukemia

A disease of mammals characterized by a marked increase in the number of white cells (leukocytes) in the circulating blood. An increased number of circulating white cells (leukocytes) is found in many diseases, from the most trivial infection to the most severe, in which the underlying disease is gross and represents a reaction of the body to the infectious process. In leukemia, on the other hand, the leukocytosis persists as a progressive and predominantly of any living animal, the ultimate result is fatal. During the course of the disease, the white cells are distributed throughout the body and eventually infiltrate most organs.

Normal white cells are present in the marrow of the bone, although individual animals are characterized by a different number of circulating white cells. In leukemia, the bone marrow is infiltrated by products of the number of circulating white cells. Leukemia may be essentially benign, but the form of cancer of the bone marrow is living the leukocyte producing tissue. An animal is alive as long as the leukocytes are living in the marrow. It is well known a polycythemia is in the condition that is characterized by an increase in the number of circulating red cells. In leukemia, the number of circulating red cells is decreased. (Fig. 1) S. H. MATTHEWS.

Classification. The leukemias are usually classified according to the type of white cells that are increased in the blood. On the basis of the type of white cells that are increased, the leukemias are classified into four main types: (1) lymphocytic leukemia, (2) myelocytic leukemia, (3) monocytic leukemia, and (4) erythrocytic leukemia.

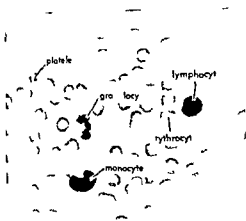


Fig. 1 Normal blood smear showing granulocyte, lymphocyte, monocyte, erythrocyte, platelet.

ma be acute, with a total course of 1 than a year (the last 10 months). Acute and chronic leukemia may also be classified according to the type of cell involved. In granulocytic (so-called myelogenous) leukemia (Fig. 2a) the predominant cell resembles the granulocyte or polymorphous leukocyte of the normal blood. In lymphocytic (or lymphatic) leukemia (Fig. 2b) the characteristic lymphocyte predominates. In monocytic leukemia (Fig. 2c) by a cell corresponding to the monocyte. The differential leukemia is their number and distribution. During the course of development of white cell changes. The young forms of the white cell resemble the polymorphous cell which by continuous mitotic division the parent cell of the blood. As the cells mature in the marrow they gradually take the appearance of the mature cell. Characteristically, in acute leukemia the blood cell count fails to maintain the normal level of the blood at a fairly stage of the disease. Thus the differential count is

blood are morphologically immature. In chronic leukemia most of the cells are at an advanced degree of maturity before they are released although many forms are always present. In study of granulocytic leukemia it is possible to predict whether it will follow an acute or a chronic course by evaluating the degree of maturity of the cells in the circulating blood.

Granulocytic leukemia involves the granulocyte polymorphous nucleus which are the cells that by their capacity to ingest and destroy bacteria are so important in the defense of the body against infection. Lymphocytes which are involved in the other common form of leukemia have a poorly understood function. Normally most of them are not formed in the marrow but in the lymphatic system scattered throughout the body known as lymph nodes. However they are normally present in marrow and in lymphocytic leukemia the marrow overruns with them in all stages of development. The uncommon monocytic leukemia involves the monocyte a motile phagocytic cell that is closely related and not at all to the macrophage widely found in all tissues of the body. Monocytic leukemia usually follows an acute or subacute course.

Aggregates of diseases closely related to the leukemia are the lymphomas. These are neoplastic masses of the cells of the lymph nodes and often of the marrow without the release of the proliferating cells into the circulating blood. The tumor process is localized for a considerable period of time but eventually involves many parts of the body. Some forms of lymphoma differ from the lymphocytic leukemia only in the absence of the histiocytes from the peripheral blood. In fact, in occasional lymphomas will hang to ordinary lymphatic leukemia by elongating into the blood. Neoplastic proliferation of the granulocytic cells of the marrow with the leukemia of the circulating blood are rare. They are sometimes designated by the paradoxical term "leukemic leukemia." They often represent but phases of the leukemia and usually follow the same course. See BLOOD

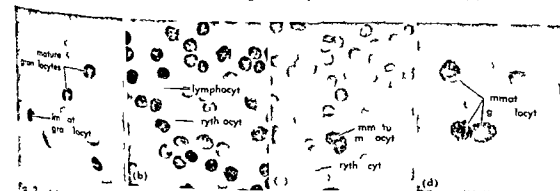


Fig. 2 (a) Blood smear showing granulocytes, (b) Blood smear showing lymphocytes, (c) Blood smear showing monocytes, (d) Blood smear showing a mixture of granulocytes, lymphocytes, and monocytes.

Incidence and epidemiology Leukemia has been observed repeatedly in a number of species of domestic animals notably in horses cattle and dogs. Occasional cases have been reported in swine cats goats and rabbits as well as in a few wild animals including elephants and monkeys. Leukemia is recognized in rats mice and guinea pigs and these common laboratory animals serve as convenient subjects for the experimental study of the disease. It would seem that with sufficient observation leukemia would become established as an important disease of all mammals. A leukemia like disease transmitted by an infectious agent occurs in a number of avian species. Little is known about leukemia in reptiles amphibians fish or the invertebrates.

In man the age incidence varies with the particular type of leukemia. The acute leukemias occur chiefly in children and young adults though no age is immune. Chronic granulocytic leukemia becomes increasingly common after the age of 25 and is prevalent at all older ages. Chronic lymphocytic leukemia is unusual before the age of 45 and after 50 its incidence rises rapidly paralleling the incidence of the common malignant diseases. Monocytic leukemia is usually seen in middle aged persons (Fig. 3).

The leukemias are about equally common in both sexes except for the chronic lymphocytic variety which is three times as common in men as in women.

Human leukemia is prevalent in all parts of the world but it seems to be more common in countries that have a higher standard of living and are technologically more advanced. Part of the difference may be due to more efficient diagnosis and more accurate reporting in these countries although in the United States leukemia is less common in Negroes than in other races.

Leukemia is becoming more common. In nearly all countries where reliable statistics are available there has been a steady rise in the incidence of leukemia which has about doubled itself in the past 20 years. Improved diagnostic methods and better reporting are not enough to account for this rise. Indeed leukemia is increasing as a cause of death more rapidly than any other disease except cancer of the lung and coronary thrombosis.

The cause of the increase is still unknown. Increasing use of x rays in medical diagnosis may play a part but cannot account for the whole picture.

Physicians constitute the only occupational group with an increased incidence of leukemia. They have about twice as much leukemia as the general population and radiologists who are exposed to small doses of radiation in their daily work have ten times as much as other physicians.

Survivors of the nuclear bomb explosions in Hiroshima and Nagasaki in 1945 have a definitely higher incidence than nonexposed Japanese. Patients given large doses of x rays in the treatment of ankylosing spondylitis a nonmalignant condi-

tion affecting young men are found to have a significantly increased incidence of leukemia many years after the exposure. The above three as occurrences are the best evidence for the hypothesis that ionizing radiation can cause leukemia in man. Though at present no concrete evidence to suggest other specific factors what they may be is still subject for speculation.

Leukemia is not a familial disease in the ordinary sense it is not inherited. Indeed a number of leukemic mothers have been delivered of healthy infants. However there is a slight familial tendency toward leukemia. Patients with leukemia are likely than other patients to have leukemic relatives.

Etiology Generally speaking the problem of cause of naturally occurring leukemia is not so simple. However some agents are known that can cause leukemia in some species including man.

Many attempts have been made to identify an infectious agent of leukemia. These have been successful only in birds. The prevalent and economically important disease of domestic chickens leukemia like condition known as fowl leukosis caused by a virus. The disease is evidently infectious in nature and can be transmitted experimentally from an affected animal to another in the laboratory. It is not necessary to use living leukemic cells to transmit the disease. Tissue extracts passed through filters fine enough to remove all animal cells and even bacteria are sufficient. The filter agent or virus of fowl leukosis can be cultivated in vitro under very special conditions. It will grow in embryonated hen's eggs like so many common viruses but will grow in tissue cultures of cells of the natural host. Further the virus appears to impart neoplastic properties to these cells even in vitro.

Since 1951 several investigators have been able to transmit mouse leukemia by means of cell filtrates prepared from tissues of afflicted animals. Only newborn mice seem to be susceptible to the filterable agent and there is a considerable time lag before the subject develops clinical evidence of the disease. Not all the treated animals develop leukemia. It would appear that a filterable agent probably a virus plays a key role in mouse leukemia but it is probably not the only factor involved. There is no evidence that leukemia can be transmitted in man although transfusions of leukemic blood have been given to nonleukemic persons.

Leukemia occurs spontaneously in many strains of mice and it has a very high incidence in some highly inbred strains suggesting that at least in this species hereditary factors play a role. However it is also possible that strictly hereditary factors are not responsible but rather that the filterable virus suggested above is transmitted from generation to generation by way of the ovum. Leukemia can be induced in mice of a susceptible strain as well as in other species of laboratory animals by exposure to ionizing radiation. Sever-

chemical agents, including methylcholanthrene increase the incidence of leukemia in colonies of susceptible strains of mice. Some naturally occurring hormones have a similar effect when given in large doses at a considerable period of time.

In man, the relation between the recognized hormones and leukemia is known. However, the permeability has been able to isolate from the urine of leukemic patients substances that produce overgrowth of the bone marrow when injected into guinea pigs. The substance isolated from patients with chronic granulocytic leukemia has about hyperplasia of the granulocytic cells of the marrow.

While the substance isolated from human cases of lymphocytic leukemia induces hyperplasia of the lymphocytic cells, the origin of these substances within the body is unknown. The result of these experiments has suggested that the net result is that certain forms of human leukemia may be due to reproduction of new cells of both of these hematopoietic substances. But as yet there is no satisfactory evidence to implicate these substances in the etiology of leukemia.

There is no convincing proof that any of the above agents, with the exception of ionizing radiation, plays a role in the causation of human leukemia. It is probably best to regard human leukemia as a neoplasm, a form of cancer affecting the cells of the blood, the bone marrow, and the lymphoid tissue. Since, however, it is not known, and it is difficult to classify leukemia as a cancer is not known, the question of its causation is not decided. It is likely that leukemia has the same etiology as a similar one as any other form of cancer. It must not be emphasized, however, that the possibility of virus infection, several of the terrible cancers of domestic animals, especially the blood, have been suggested.

It seems likely that the number of factors must cooperate to produce leukemia. A man perhaps a susceptible hereditary constitution is necessary

upon which one or several external agents must act to produce the disease. See HORMONE ONCOLOGY VIRUS XRAY(S) PHYSICAL NATURE OF

Pathology and pathogenesis If leukemia is regarded as a form of cancer, the primary site of the neoplastic proliferation is the bone marrow or the lymph node in the case of lymphocytic leukemia. No mal blood forms in marrow; about one half fat and the remainder consists of multiplying and differentiating precursor cells, blood cells, red cells, white cells, and platelets. The function of the red cell is to carry oxygen to various parts of the body. The white cells function in a kind of key part in the tissue response known as inflammation and are important in the defense of the body against infection by microorganisms. The platelets have an important function in blood coagulation. They plug small breaks in the wall of blood vessels and promote the formation of clots. With out them small wounds may bleed uncontrollably for long periods.

Hypertrophy Under conditions the bone marrow elements may undergo hypertrophy and overgrowth. In acute anemia from sudden loss of blood, the red cell precursors multiply rapidly and their number in the marrow increases notably. New mature red cells are thrown into the circulation, blood plasma, the deficit in short time. This would be possible with out hypotrophy. Similarly, in acute infections where granulocytic white cells are removed from the site of infection from the blood, the precursor of the white cells, the marrow undergoes hypertrophy and pours them into the circulation. These forms of hypertrophy have a useful function and are important in restoring the body equilibrium. It has been demonstrated in the example above by hemorrhage caused by bacteria. When the underlying cause of the hypoplasia no longer persists when the abnormal replacement of the infection ended the marrow returns to its original condition.

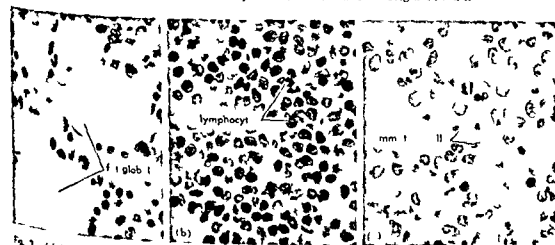


Fig. 3 (a) Normal bone marrow cells (b) Lymphocytic leukemia (c) Granulocytic leukemia. (a) Normal bone marrow (b) Lymphocytic leukemia (c) Granulocytic leukemia. (a) Normal bone marrow (b) Lymphocytic leukemia (c) Granulocytic leukemia.

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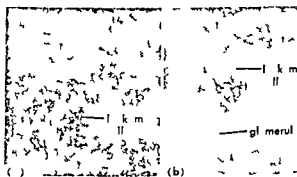


Fig 4 (a) Liver in chronic granulocytic leukemia showing glomerular infiltration by leukemic cells (small dark cells). (b) Kidney in chronic granulocytic leukemia showing infiltration by leukemic cells (small dark cells).

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Leukopenia

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a s y m p t o m I t m a y o c c i t h e c o s e o f a g r a t
r i t y f d e a s I t s i m p o t a n c e n a n y g e n
a e d p e n d o i t s e v i t y n d o t h e n a t r o f
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e s t n e t i f e c t n S B L O O D I N F E C T I O N

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g r o p f p t h l g c n d t A m o g t h e s e
i f e t l d g t h f b c t e r a l v r l a d
p r t z o a l g f s m p l t y p d f e v e i f l
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Leucocyte proliferation In leukemia however the hyperplasia of white cell precursors in the marrow differs from physiological reactive hyperplasia by being relentlessly progressive and apparently uncontrolled. It is autonomous and is not dependent on any recognized condition of the rest of the body. As the primitive white cell multiply they first replace the fatty tissue of the marrow. After a time they replace all of the available fat and proliferating further begin to crowd out the progenitors of the red cells and of the platelets. Microscopic examination of the marrow shows massively increased numbers of immature white cells at the expense of red cell and platelet precursors. In some cases especially of acute leukemia the overgrowth of white cells is so massive as to impinge upon and destroy the hard calcified structural tissue of bone producing areas of bone erosion visible in x-ray films occasionally painful tumors and rarely fracture.

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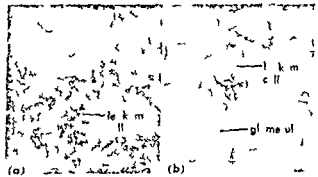


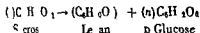
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Although the molecular size of the polysaccharides formed by different microorganisms varies it is always high, being of the order of 10 or more. The polysaccharides are polyfructose chains having units mutually linked by glycosidic (glycosidic) and carbon atom 6 positions thereby different from inulin, which has its fructose units joined through carbon atom 2 and carbon atom 1 position.

The microorganisms use sucrose as a substrate but will use only the fructose molecule to form the levans.



Polysaccharide. [W. Z. H.]

Level (surveying)

An instrument for establishing a horizontal line of sight. The level usually consists of a telescope and attached parts, mounted on a tripod for rotation about a vertical axis. The line of sight is fixed by crosshairs.stadia hairs may be provided for measuring the keeping of the level and back sight angles. The telescope is long and its upper interior surface is ground to a concave arc at the center of the ground arc is parallel to the line of sight, thus the line of sight is horizontal with the spirit level bubble centered. The instrument is levelled by manipulation of foot screws when using.

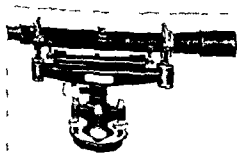


Figure 1. Level

Engineering level includes the dumpy with telescope rigidly attached to the upper eyepiece and the wye, with the telescope removable from the yoke. A precise level has a level of approximately 1/16 inch and a center of gravity final centering of the bubble. The bubble can be viewed through a series of prisms while the rod is used.

Adjustable principles applied in self-levelling instruments. The magnifying optical system for the bubble is the line of sight suspended with a balance by fine wires. After the leveling of the foot, the level is used to level the horizontal of all points. For the level surveying see SURVEYING.

[R. H. D.]

Level measurement

The determination of the horizontal distance between a reference point and the surface of a liquid at the top of a pile of divided solids. Since there is little similarity between liquid and solid level measurement they are treated separately in this article.

LIQUID-LEVEL MEASUREMENT

Statistical measurements are possible only when the liquid is undisturbed by turbulence waves. When a liquid is too turbulent for the measurement to be made in a baffled or stilling chamber is inserted in the tank or vessel to provide a satisfactory surface.

Stick hook and tape gages. These are used in open vessels where the surface of the liquid can easily be observed. The stick gage is a suitably divided vertical rod or stick, which is in the vessel.

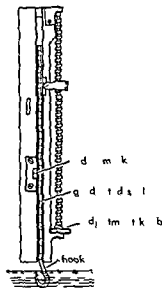


Fig. 1. Hook gage (From W. U. W. A. T. I. Hyd. I. M. Mill 1912)

When the measurement of the level of the liquid may be measured. The hook gage (Fig. 1) provides a reading point, which is adjusted to disturb the liquid surface slightly at the level reading. The buoyant force of the measurement is the weight of the gage. The correction is made when the liquid is to check the position of the plumb line (Fig. 2). In the important position of the tape gage, the complete measurement is correct through the tape plumb line and liquid detect the contact of the bubble with the liquid surface and limits the reading for the observation of the liquid level.

Gage glasses. May form of gage glasses are available for the measurement of liquid level in a tank. These are connected to the gage glass by a suitable fitting and when the tank is under pressure the pipe end of the glass must be connected to the tank pipe. The liquid level is then instantly the same height in the glass.

vated reflecting the increased production of white cells by the marrow and their transport to the involved tissues. But even these infections if overwhelming may be associated with leukopenia if the demand for white cells is so great that the resources of the marrow are exhausted.

Leukopenia is regularly found in a group of diseases whose only common factor is enlargement of the spleen as for example cirrhosis of the liver. The mechanism of this form of leukopenia is not entirely understood. Some investigators postulate a hormone-like substance produced in increased amounts by an enlarged spleen that specifically inhibits development of leukocytes in the marrow. Attempts to isolate and identify this hormone have not been successful.

Advanced and widespread cancer may produce leukopenia when it invades the bone marrow extensively and effectively crowds out the white cell producing tissues. In this condition known as myelophthisis there is an associated anemia due to the same cause.

Leukopenia sometimes severe and life threatening is regularly produced by certain physical and chemical agents when they are given in sufficient dosage. Among these are x-ray, benzene, arsenic and a group of synthetic compounds used in the treatment of leukemia. These agents all have the power of selectively injuring rapidly dividing and proliferating cells. They thus impair multiplication of the white cell precursors in the marrow which are among the most actively dividing cells in the body. Accidental exposure to sufficient dosage of radiation—as from the products of nuclear weapons or of benzene which may occur in industrial exposure—may result in a severe progressive and fatal leukopenia. Smaller doses produce a milder leukopenia or none at all. The drugs used in the treatment of leukemia and other neoplastic diseases are given in dosages carefully controlled to keep the bone marrow depression within tolerable limits. However the leukopenia induced by therapy occasionally becomes a clinical problem.

Another chemically and pharmacologically diverse group of drugs many of them in common use rarely or occasionally produce a severe leukopenia in especially sensitive patients although they have no effect on the white cells of the great majority of the patients who receive them. Amidopyrine is a well known offender and several sulfonamides, antihistamines, anticonvulsant agents and a variety of others are occasionally implicated. The mechanism whereby these drugs can produce such devastating effects in an occasional patient while having no effect on the majority even when given in large doses is not known. There is some evidence that it is a hypersensitivity phenomenon related to allergy. The leukopenia usually appears after the drug has been given for some considerable period of time or often during a second course of treatment with the same drug suggesting that sensitivity is acquired in the manner of an allergy.

A considerable number of cases of severe leuko-

ble cause and are designated as being idiopathic. See ALLERGY ATOPIC LYMPHATIC SYSTEM X RAY(S) PHYSICAL NATURE OF

Course and manifestations. The milder incidental forms of leukopenia usually produce no clinical manifestations and will not be discussed further. The more severe forms as produced by radiation or chemical agents often present the clinical pictures of pancytopenia or agranulocytosis.

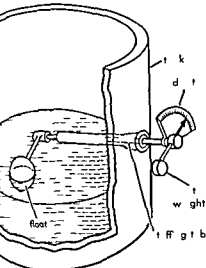
In pancytopenia all circulating blood cells red and white as well as platelets are diminished reflecting depressed production of all of these elements by the marrow. This condition can be produced both by the regular marrow depressing agents and those producing hypersensitivity as well as occurring spontaneously. The clinical findings are those of an aplastic anemia, leukopenia and purpura, a bleeding tendency due to diminished platelets. Often anemia is the most serious problem requiring repeated transfusion but in other cases repeated and poorly resisted infections due to the leukopenia predominate. The cases induced by drugs frequently recover after a variable period of time if the patient does not succumb to infection early in the course but many of those occurring without known cause follow a chronic course for many years. Microscopic examination of the marrow in pancytopenia may show either hypoplasia with generally reduced numbers of the precursors of the blood cells or a normal degree of cellularity with failure of the young cells to mature.

Agranulocytosis is the name applied to the acute illness resulting from drug hypersensitivity or occasionally from an undiscoverable cause. It is manifested by a rather sudden onset of severe leukopenia often with complete disappearance of the granulocytes. There is usually no associated anemia or platelet deficiency. Most of the symptoms and the high mortality are due to infection by bacteria. The clinical onset is often sudden with chills, fever, marked prostration soon followed by evidence of infection which often takes the form of ulcerative lesions in the mouth. The patient may die in a few days of pneumonia or dissemination of the infectious process throughout the body. With modern antimicrobial treatment infection may be controlled for a time but even so the condition has a high mortality. Bone marrow findings are variable and nonspecific but there is always a lack of the more mature white cell precursors.

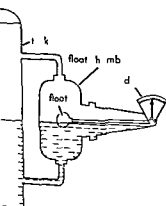
The only treatment that is undoubtedly useful is the administration of antibiotic drugs to control infection. These drugs have been life saving in some cases but their effectiveness is hampered by the almost complete lack of the patient's natural mechanisms of defense. See CIRCULATION DISORDERS {ran}

Levan

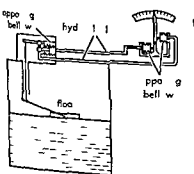
A polysaccharide and a polymer of D-fructose (fructans) produced by a range of microorganisms such as *Bacillus mesentericus*, *B. vulgatus*, *B. subtilis*, *B. megaterium*, and *A. solanum*.



Float-damper mechanism



Float-damper mechanism



Float-damper mechanism (D M McG Hill 1957)

rr s f g e a t m g n t d e t h n w i t h t h e
n e c h n m B o y t y l i d e o r d p l r
p r i m u p o r t a c f p p l e c t n l e d
u n d r p r e . A s t h e l e l h g s t h
r a f e d e v e l p e d w i t h t a p p e c
m o v e m t f t h d p l r T h f
n e t t e d t h o g h t h e s e l w a l l b y a h a f t d
q u a t u b e f l e x b l t b r f l e b l e d

phragm. Because of mechanical friction is minimized. Displacer units are sensitive to smaller change in level than float units which require stuffing boxes. Another advantage is that liquid displacer can be supported on short level arm because of the negligible travel with level change. The good design can be provided for larger level change than can be reasonably handled by the float and lever system.

Displacer type level elements are available in many designs for both the internal and external tank installation. In Fig 9 the small motion of the displacer is brought out of the tank for measuring or transmission purposes by small shaft with a weight which supports the displacer. In Fig 10 the change in weight of the displacer is detected externally by a nozzle and baffle and is balanced by a pneumatic serv.

Pressure gages Hydrostatic head may also be used to measure liquid level. The head of a liquid varies directly with its density as well as with its level and thus this method of measurement requires that density be substantially constant. Desirable liquids are water, temperature are therefore introduced with temperature changes or the measuring element must be temperature compensated. Errors are also introduced if appreciable flow occurs in the line leading to the head measurement.

Most pressure measuring elements may be used in liquid level. The pressure gage is limited to relatively large level changes in open tanks. Mercury is a good manometer fluid used for intermediate range inclined well type tank because the instrument is easily differentiated. The pressure measuring device is the bell manometer and slack diaphragm gage is adapted to the measurement of small liquid level change. Fig 9 details pressure measuring devices.

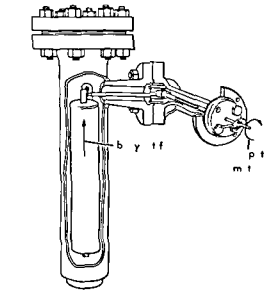


Fig 9. Types of level measurement (F H G C)

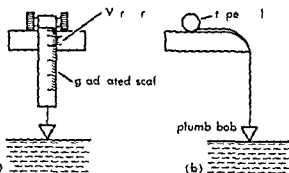
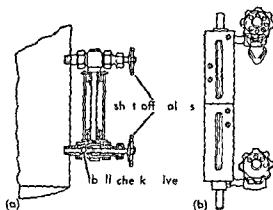
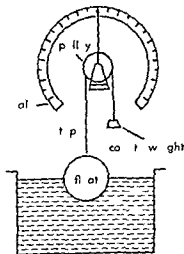


Fig 2 Tape gage (a) Front view (b) Side view

Fig 3 Gage glasses (a) Low pressure type (b) High pressure type (From D M Considine, *Process Instruments and Controls Handbook* McGraw Hill 1957)Fig 4 Float tap and pulley gage (D M Considine, *Process Instruments and Controls Handbook* McGraw Hill 1957)

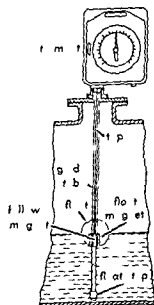
as in the tank and this height is measured by suitable scale. In order to avoid errors due to capillarity gage glasses with an internal diameter smaller than $\frac{1}{4}$ in are not recommended unless a correction is applied. Most gage glasses are equipped with shut off valves to permit cleaning and replacement of the gage glass without emptying the tank and with check valves to prevent loss of liquid in the event of glass breakage. Low pressure gages are cylindrical glass or plastic tubes; high pressure gages are metal tubes with thick glass windows (Fig 3).

Float mechanisms Various types of float mechanism are also used for liquid level measurement. The float tape and pulley gage provides an excellent method of measuring large changes in level with accuracy (Fig 4). It has the advantage that the scale can be placed for convenient reading at any point within a reasonable distance of the tank or vessel. It can be applied to the measurement of liquid in tanks under pressure but frictional errors are introduced in bringing the tape through the wall of the tank. One solution is to maintain the tank pressure over the entire length of the tape and read the tape through a glass. Another solution is to introduce a magnetic coupling between the float which is under pressure and the tape actuator which is at atmospheric pressure (Fig 5).

Float and lever mechanisms The float may be used advantageously in closed tanks under pressure when the liquid measured is viscous or when it would foul a gage glass. The internal type is located directly within the tank and is connected to an external indicator through a stuffing box (Fig 6). The external type incorporates an auxiliary cage or housing with connections to the liquid and vapor space in the main tank (Fig 7).

Float operated hydraulic level gage This utilizes the float and lever principle to actuate a remote gage through a hydraulic coupling (Fig 8). Float movements transfer liquid between a transmitting bellows and a remote bellows in the receiving gage. A dual opposed hydraulic system permits the mechanism to operate under pressure and compensates for temperature changes in the connecting hydraulic lines.

Buoyant displacer elements The change in buoyancy of a solid as its immersion in a liquid is varied is used to measure liquid level. This principle is used for liquid level measurement only when the densities of the liquid and vapor are substantially constant. Temperature changes will pro-

Fig 5 Magnetic float gage (Fletcher and Pratt, *Chemical Engineering*)

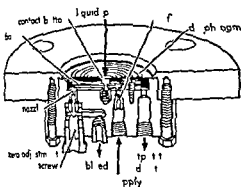


Fig. 14. Free-body diagram of the type I fastener (Type I steel fastener).

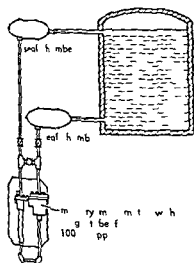


Fig. 15 Me very m m te with l g d al
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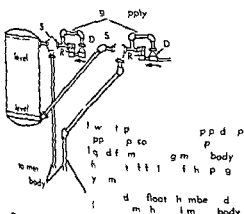


fig. 18 Gasp ge ytem f l l m u m t in
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 Proc 1st m t nd C t l H db k M G w
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the purge gas flow. The bottom edge of the dip tube or box is designed to minimize the size of the bubble released.

When the liquid being measured is highly corrosive or contains solid particles and the gas purge is not satisfactory a liquid purge, a combination gas and liquid purge or a combination air and steam purge is possible.

The pressure head of a liquid above a reference point may also be measured by a force-balance diaphragm system. As the level varies, the diaphragm operates a sensitive detector such as a nozzle and baffle and a sample servo to produce a force equal to that developed by the liquid head (Fig. 14). The diaphragm is maintained in a substantially constant position. The input signals are pneumatically operated and the pressure opposing the liquid head is equal to it. Other systems employ the hydrostatic head on the diaphragm with pressure in a bellows reduced so that the pressure change is raised several magnitudes. The force-balance diaphragm system eliminates the pumping system and its maintenance problems.

Clos d t ks When ma meters other d ffer
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r ment, l d ta k a et nd onne tion mu t
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The xt r n l leg is fill d w th liquid to e l ch m
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m a u i g elem nt may be r m tely loc ted f om
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Gas pressure (Fig. 16) are also used for determining the amount of gas in the tanks. Both tanks are connected to a gas supply with a pressure slightly higher than the maximum which can occur in the tank. The gas flow is limited by restrictors in the orifices and a float is used by rotameters. The gas flow in each line must be large enough to permit liquid from entering the lead lines and to ensure that the drops in the small enough to keep the pressure drop between the manometer tap and the tank at a minimum. The minimum pressure in the tanks is also related to the tanks in a possible

Liquid also occasionally used on leaded ink
liquid measurements Seal chamber m t be

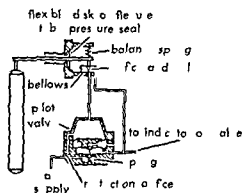


Fig 10 Force balance level unit (D M Considine *Ed Process Instruments and Controls Handbook McGraw Hill 1957*)

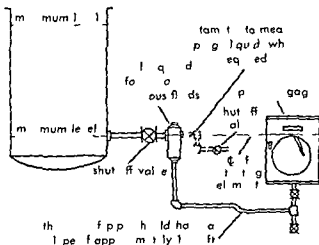


Fig 11 Pressure gage measuring tank level (D M Considine *Ed Process Instruments and Controls Handbook McGraw Hill 1957*)

Open tanks In open tanks the pressure measuring element is connected directly to the tank at or near its bottom (the reference or datum point). The pressure element may be located at any reasonable distance from the tank and at any desired distance below the reference point but the element responds to the additional head due to the liquid in the lead line. Gas or vapor must be vented from the lead lines. Pressure measuring elements when used in this way normally have suppressed ranges so that the zero reading occurs at the pressure corresponding to the bottom of the tank level. With careful installation the pressure measuring element may be located above the reference point. This installation requires a gas tight lead line venting only when the tank level is high and the maximum safe elevation of the pressure measuring element is the head corresponding to one half of atmospheric pressure less the vapor pressure of the liquid (Fig 11). Temperature changes on sloping lead lines cause density change and errors are introduced unless the pressure element has special compensation for this effect.

To minimize lead line errors and venting trapped gas and gas purge systems have been developed. These systems make it possible to locate the pres-

sure measuring device at any reasonable distance above the reference point. The diaphragm box may be installed directly in the tank or connected to it at the reference level. A slack diaphragm separates the liquid from the trapped air or gas leading to the pressure gage. The diaphragm has no pressure constant hence the gas pressure equals that at the reference point and the remote gage indicates the head of the liquid with respect to the reference point (Fig 12). The gas volume in the pressure measuring system is kept small to minimize the temperature effect and the compressibility effect with liquid level changes.

On some installations a trapped gas system eliminating the slack diaphragm can be used. On these installations the gas must not be absorbed in the liquid and the liquid must not vaporize and condense in the lead line to the pressure measuring device. Provision is generally made for periodic gas checking and replacement. In the gas purge system (Fig 13) a small quantity of gas is bled into the system continuously. This gas is permitted to bubble from the box or a tube with an opening at the reference level. Purge rates of about 1 standard ft³/hour are common. Precautions are taken to avoid measurement of the pressure drop due to

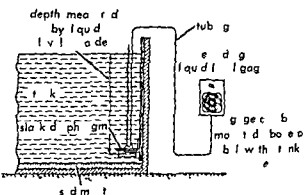


Fig 12 Trapped-gas level system using diaphragm box (Bristol Co.)

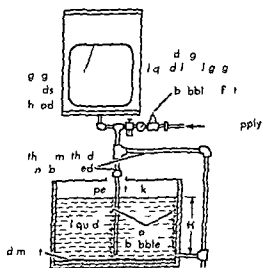


Fig 13 Gas purge level system (Bristol Co.)

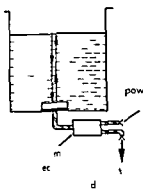


Fig. 21. Solid level measurement system. (D.M.C. Ltd. P. 1957)

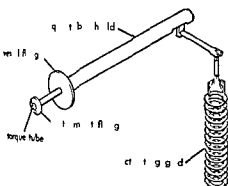


Fig. 22. Grid-type level measurement system. (U.O.I.C. Ltd. 1957)

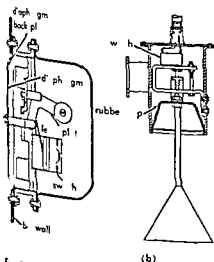


Fig. 23. Fixed-point level measurement system. (D.M.C. Ltd. P. 1957)

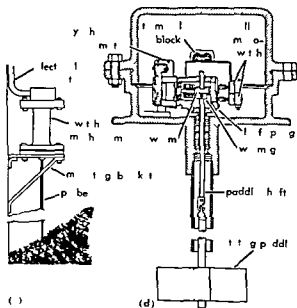


Fig. 24. Fixed-point level measurement system. (D.M.C. Ltd. P. 1957)

SOLIDS-LEVEL MEASUREMENT

Solids level detectors are used to locate the top of a pile of solid in large vessels or process storage equipment. The instruments are designed for the different solids handled and the installation must be carefully made to ensure proper measurement. Because of the difficulty of the shape distribution, moisture content and other factors, these detectors provide only an approximate indication of the volume present or the top of the pile. Solids level detectors are classified as continuous or fixed point.

Continuous detectors These provide continuous measurement of the level over the range for which they were designed. The output is a analog representation of the level.

The grid-type element (Fig. 22) is embedded in bed of finely divided moving particles and provides continuous indication of the level surface. The grid is supported and weighed by a mechanical pneumatic system, the weight increasing as the immersion increases. This circuit may be used in a level detector.

The ray meter and detector discussed previously for liquid level measurement is particularly useful in this service because all the equipment may be located outside the vessel.

The beam scale and other weighing device are used particularly on small vessels as a process weighing equipment. See WEIGHT MEASUREMENT.

The capacitance type level detector also discussed under liquid level measurement is satisfactory for use on many finely divided solids.

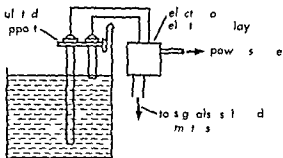


Fig 17 Conductivity probe type level system (D M Cond n ed Process I str ments and Controls Hand book McGraw Hill 1957)

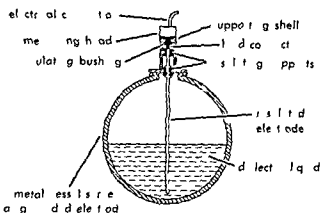


Fig 18 Capacitance probe type level system for dielectric liquid (D M Cond e ed Process Inst u ments and Controls Handbook McGraw Hill 1957)

installed at suitable locations and consideration must be given to the differential in the specific gravity between the sealing liquid and the liquid in the tank

Thermal elements may be used for level control when the temperatures of a liquid and of the vapor space above it differ appreciably. Although standard thermal elements are used in some services a number of special designs offered for boiler service are particularly designed to handle the problem of boiler swell on increased steam demand. The level devices in this group are not precision devices and are not used for measurement purposes.

Electrode or probe systems. These are used in various forms for level indication and control (Fig 17). The number of electrodes and their design depend upon the characteristics of the liquid and the application. Fundamentally a circuit through a relay coil is closed (or opened) when the liquid contacts a probe. Electronic circuits are used when the liquid resistance is high.

Capacitance measuring devices. If the liquid being measured is a dielectric insulated probes may be inserted into it and the capacitance of the assembly will vary with the immersion of the probes in the liquid (Fig 18). The dielectric constant of the liquid must be different from that of the vapor and errors will occur if either of these changes appreciably. If the liquid is a conductor only one probe is necessary but it must be covered with an

insulating coating (Fig 19). As the liquid rises the probe the capacitance of the unit increases. Although capacitance methods of measuring liquid level have certain advantages (no moving parts corrosion resistance) they have certain disadvantages such as high cost susceptibility to dielectric changes and susceptibility to electrical interference. Therefore this method of level measurement is limited to those applications which cannot readily be handled by other means.

Nuclear level gages. These are used for difficult applications. Basically all of the units involve a source of gamma (γ) radiation and a detector operated by the vessel or a portion of the vessel in which a liquid level varies. As the level rises the detector receives less γ radiation and thus the level is measured. Numerous designs are available for special application needs one of which is illustrated (Fig 20).

Sonic level detector. This is based on the time increment between the emission of a sound wave pulse and its reflection from liquid surface. The sound wave pulse is generated electronically and its time in transit is measured very accurately by electronic means. If the speed of sound in the liquid or in the vapor is known accurately the liquid level is known (Fig 21).

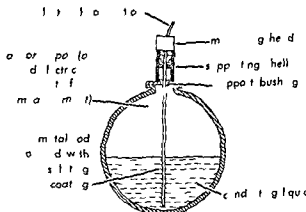


Fig 19 Capacitance probe type level system for conductive liquid (D M Cond e ed Process Inst u ments and Controls Handbook McGraw Hill 1957)

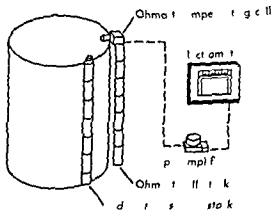


Fig 20 Gamma ray level gage (D M Cond e ed Process Inst ments and Control Handbook McGraw Hill 1957)



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C l i g B i y d H H 1954)

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Li detector

Li detector
A useful appl cation f the physiolog c l resp s
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p n b e c a e f the o n f i c t b e t w e e n the t r o n g
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r e t o c a p e d e t e t i n P e r s n s l a c k n g o n
s c e n m a y t i l l m k e a n m t i o n l r s p n t
l y i g i f t h y b e l i e i n the i f a l l i b i l i t y of the m
h i n

Ac rd g to r e w m d e b y D l W l f e i n
1946 the c r a c y of the p l y g r a p h i n p r a c t
80 c c r r e c t 3 c w r o n g n d 17 c n o t t e r p t
a b l e Th a c u r y d e p e d s t a g r e t x t e n t o n the
s k u l l f the e x m i e r who must be t h o u g h t
t i n e d and h o u l d h v e e e a l y a r s f e p e
e n c e

M s t o u r t s d o n t y e t a c c p t l i d e t e c t r e p o r t
a e v i d e n c e l i t h g h o n f e i o n s e l c i t e d b y
m e f a l e d e t o r e x a m i n a t o n m a y u s u a l l y
b e p t e d [A F A]

B b l o g a p h y F E I n b u L i e D t e c t i n d
C r i m i n a l I t r g t o n 2 d e d 1948 The P o l y
g a p h i c T u t h T t A s y m p o s u m T n e s s e e L a w
R e v i e w 1 22 F e b r a r y 1953 D W l f e S u m
m a r y f r p o r t of u b o m m i t t e e o n m t h o d of l e
d e t e c t n A m J P s y c h o l 59 544 1946

Liesegang rings

P e o d p e c i p t a t n o n e b t a d l y c o u n t e
d i f f u s o f s o l u b l u b t a n c e s w h f r m a s l i g h t l y
o l b l e p r e c i p i t e l t h s e o f n e d m e n s i o n a l
d i f f s i t h e z o n s a r a l l e d L i e g n g b a n d
W h e p l a c i n g a d r o p of c o n c e n t r a t e d s l e r
n t t e s l t i n u n n o l s n l a t e a c d n t

Fixed point detectors These indicate when a specific level has been reached. They are used mainly for actuating alarm signals. By installing a number of these however at different points the combined response can be made to approach that of a continuous detector. Four fixed point detectors are shown in Fig 23.

Diaphragm operated level detectors are widely used for finely divided solids (such as wheat) in open vessels.

The pendant cone and movable probe units used in large open vessels are actuated by the surface of the cone resulting from the piling of the material.

The rotating paddlewheel level detector is driven continuously by a small motor until the paddle is stopped by the presence of solid material. This device is widely used on finely divided solids in open vessels. [RECL]

Bibliography D M Considine (ed) *Process Instruments and Controls Handbook* 1957

Lever

A pivoted rigid bar used to multiply force or motion sometimes called the lever and fulcrum (Fig 1). The lever uses one of the two conditions for static equilibrium which is that the summation of moments about any point equals zero. (The other condition is that the summation of forces acting in any direction through a point equals zero. See INCLINED PLANE.)

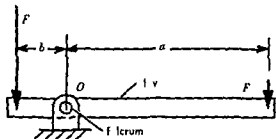


Fig 1 The lever pivots at the fulcrum

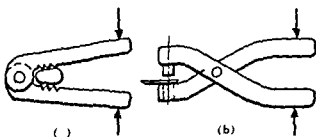


Fig 2 (a) Nutcracker (b) Paper Punch

If moments acting counterclockwise around the fulcrum of a lever are positive then for a frictionless lever

$$F_B b - F_A a = 0$$

thus

$$F_B = \frac{a}{b} F_A$$

If F_B is the output and F_A is the input the mechanical advantage is

$$MA = \frac{F_B}{F_A} = \frac{a}{b}$$

Applications of the lever range from the nutcracker and paper punch (Fig 2) to complex multiple lever systems found in scales and in lifting machines used in the study of properties of materials. See SIMPLE MACHINE [RMP]

Libra

The Balance in astronomy is one of the 12 zodiac constellations. Libra appears during the spring is the seventh sign of the Zodiac. The constellation consists of faint stars and is not conspicuous. It lies just west of the claws of Scorpio. The principal stars outline a four-sided figure resembling a balance with beam and pans. The balance may have been held originally in the hand of Virgo, zodiacal constellation nearby who was identified with the Goddess of Justice. Another possible reason for identifying the constellation with the balance is that 2000 years ago the Sun was in Libra at the then autumnal equinox at which time day and night are of equal length. See CONSTELLATION [CSV]

Lichens

A group of organisms having a dual nature: they are algal and fungal components are combined in a plant that is distinct and consistently recognizable. Over 15,000 species have been described. Because of the dual nature of lichens they do not readily assume a natural position in any plant classification. They are widely distributed and occur in a great variety of habitats. Lichens may be found on bare rocks, soil, living tree trunk, and dead wood of any kind. They range from the arctic tundra where some species are found in such abundance as to provide pasturage for grazing animals to the tropics where some of the bark lichens are conspicuous. Frequently they are to be found where conditions are unfavorable for the growth of other plants. Most lichens are gray or grayish green but some are white, orange, yellow, yellowish green, brown, or black. In a few certain structural features of the plant are brilliantly colored.

Relationship The complete relationship which exists between an alga and a fungus as associated in a lichen is not fully understood. The relationship has been cited as one of the best examples of symbiosis within the plant kingdom; however, some students of the group are not convinced that this is a reasonable explanation.

In most lichens the algal component is a member of either the blue-green algae (see CYANOPHYTES) or the green algae (see CHLOROPHYTES). The fungus component is usually a cup fungus (see ASCOMYCETES) or more rarely it is a club fungus (see BASIDIOMYCETES). The fungus usually forms a dense network of interweaving hyphae enveloping the algal cells. Depending on the configuration of



A tolose l h P m l N t th c p h p d
prod ch bod (b) Cru t l h g w g p
rock. (c) Un b bot f n l h g w g

po at b ch (F m H J F l l r a d O T p p o
C l l g B l y d H l t 1954)

re masses of cells d hypha the pla t h dy
a be f lose (l aff ke) cr t e (t l ke) or
ucose (b an hin)
Reproduction R p d t s by fragm ta
on the by th d th f the lde part of the
areat bod o by p al b d c l l d o d
hich a e sm l l f gments of th thall s ead ly
ta bed a d d m ated by air c ents In ad
ue to th g t t mean of r p o d c n g th
ibon as a u t h f the s d d l comp e t
t r p o d u e th sex ally or e ally

Economic importance The l h n re imp
ant p eer sol b lde s as f d f r m d
et au al a e f h dyes ltm
m l d e d b e a s o of ta n d as
so e f r t e t i l o l u d f th
m t app l S ALGAE FUNGI [P A V]
B l g phy S THALLOPHYTA

lconice

typod t bta ed f m the l c pl nt Glycy
rhia glab of th legume fam ly (L gum o)
lt a p renn al he b wh ch gr w both wld and
m cult t n thern Eu op nd i wet r n
a d e c r t l A The roots a e d ed for s al
er b a d the p kaged f r sh pment. Sp in
leads in the p o d u o n of ult ated l o r i e r s
Lawson is used in med cine t m k o b j e t o n b l
t u e a s a l a x t e a s i n g m a t e l i
th b r e w i n g t b c d a d y i n d u t r i n d
m t m u f t r e f h e p l h See ROSALES
S P I C E A N D F L A V O R I G [P D S]

Lie detector

A w ul p p l i c a t i o n of the phy l o g i l r e s p s
d e t e c t i o n . T h m c h n e i k o w n s t h e p o l y g r p h
b e d e c t a n d i s w i d l y u s e d i n r m e d e t c t n
m d m e c u r y s e u e r e s f e m p l o y m e n t
The l i d e t e c t o r o p e r a t e s t h e p a c u p l
a w a m p l u s t i l y n g i o l e s n m o t o n l e
a r o n a n d t h t e m o t n a l r a t i o n r e c h r a c t
w d b p h y l g i l c h a n g e T h p h y o l g a l
r e a d b y l e d t e c t r a h n g

relative blood p e e heart rate respiration
mo ements and f e q e t l y p a l m a r s w e a t i n g o
g a l k i n r e p o The n e c e s a r y a p p a r a t
i s a t t a h d t a u s p e c t w h i t h e n a s k e d e r i e
f q u e s t i o n s t o w h h h e c a n m p l y n s w e r y s o r
n o S o m i t h e q e s t s r e n e t r a l a n d s e r v e t o
e t a b l i s h t h e s u b j e c t s c h r a c t e r i s t i c r e s p o s t o
k w n t r u t h f l s w e r s T h s i g n i f i c a n t q u e t
o r t h w h i c h p t n t o t h e r m e a r e p h s e d
t h s u s p e c t m u s t e t h a d m i t k o w l e d g f t h e
c r i m r l i e

L y n a b e l i e d t o i n l e a e m o t i o n a l r e
s p b e c a e o f t h e f l i c t b t w e e n t h e s t r o n g
l t u r e d d i t u g f o r t t h f l e s a n d t h d e v
i r e t e c a p e d e t e c t n P e r n s l a c k g a n
c e m y s t l l m k e a e m t n l r e p n s e t
l y i n g f t h e y b e l i e e t h e i f l i b i l i t y o f t h m
c h i

A c c d g t o a e v i e w m a d e b y D a e l W o l f i n
1946 t h e c u r c y o f t h e p o l y g r p h n p r t i e
80% o r e t 3% w r g a d 17% n o t t e r p t
a b l e T h e a c u r a c y d e p e n d t o a g r a t e t e n t o n t h e
k i l l o f t h e e x a m n e r w h o m t b e t h o u g h t y
t i e d d s h u l d h e s e v a l y e r s f e p r i
n c e

M t c o u r t d o n t s y e t a c c p t l e d e t e t r e p
o r t s e d e n c e t h o u g h c o n f s s i o s e l t e d b y
m e n s o f a l e d t c t o r e x a m a t i n m a y u s u a l l y
b e c e p t e d [A F A]

B b l o g p h y F E I n b u L e D e t c t n a d
C r i m n a l l t e r r g t o 2 d e d 1948 T h e P l y
g p h c T t h T e t A s y m p o s m T e n n s s e L a w
R e v i e w 1 22 F e b u a r y 1953 D W l f e S m
m a r y o f r p o r t f s u b o m m i t t e o n m e t h o d o f l
d e t e c t o n A m J P y c h l 59 544 1946

Liesegang rings

P i o d p r e c p i t a t n z e s b t i n e d b y c n t e
d i f f i n f o l s i b l e b t a c e w h u h f o r m a l i g h t l y
l b l p r i p i t a t I n t h e c a s o f n d m e o l
d f f u s n t h e z o a e l l e d L i e s g a g b a n d s
W h e p l a c g d r o p o f a o n c e t r a t e d s l
n t r t s l t i o u p a g l p l t c o e r e d w t h a

gelatin layer containing potassium dichromate R E Liebig observed in 1896 that the resulting precipitation of silver chromate did not spread continuously or quasi continuously but that individual precipitation zones separated by zones free of precipitate evolved in the form of concentric circles Similar phenomena have been observed with many other reactions

Periodic precipitation is due to the interplay of diffusion and nucleation which requires a certain degree of supersaturation Assume that solute *A* diffuses from a fairly concentrated solution into a dilute solution of *B* The precipitate *AB* starts to evolve the initially high degree of supersaturation drops and accordingly nucleation ceases Upon diffusion of *A* into farther regions not yet depleted with respect to *B* a sufficient degree of supersaturation is reached once more a second precipitation zone evolves and so forth See PRECIPITATION (CHEMISTRY) [C.W.]

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Life origin of

The origin of life refers to the means by which living organisms arose on the earth which contained no life when it was formed While there is little difficulty in telling whether a higher organism is alive there is no agreement as to what characteristics would be required for the most primitive organisms in order to call them living The most outstanding characteristic of living organisms is their ability to reproduce Therefore the definition used here for a living organism will be an entity which is capable of making a reasonably accurate reproduction of itself with the copy being able to accomplish the same task Furthermore this organism must be subject to a low rate of changes (mutations) that are transmitted to its progeny

Spontaneous generation Until the nineteenth century it was almost universally held that life could arise spontaneously as well as by sexual or nonsexual reproduction The appearance of various insects and animals from decaying organic materials in the presence of warmth or sunlight was a common observation but this observation was misinterpreted to mean that the insects and animals arose spontaneously

The Tuscan physician Francesco Redi performed the first effective experiments (1668) to disprove the hypothesis of spontaneous generation He showed that the development of maggots in meat did not occur when the flask containing the meat was covered with muslin so that flies could not lay their eggs on the meat Lazzaro Spallanzani performed similar experiments (1765) showing that microorganisms did not appear in various nutrient broths if the vessels were sealed and boiled Objections were raised that the heating had destroyed in the broth and air the vital force which was postulated as necessary for life to develop By readmit

ting air it was possible to show that the broth could still support the growth of microorganism But Spallanzani could not demonstrate that the air in the sealed flask had not been altered and the doctrine of spontaneous generation persisted widely

The problem was finally solved by Louis Pasteur (1862) who used a flask with broth but in which sealing the flask drew out a long S shaped tube with its end open to the air The air was free to pass in and out of the flask but the particles of dust bacteria and molds in the air were caught on the sides of the S shaped tube When the broth in the flask was boiled and allowed to cool no microorganisms developed but when the S shaped tube was broken off at the neck of the flask microorganisms developed The experiment was extended by Pasteur and by J Tyndall to answer all objections that were raised and the doctrine of spontaneous generation was finally disproved

Origin of life theories Shortly before 1858 Charles Darwin and A R Wallace had published simultaneously and independently the theory of evolution by natural selection This theory could account for the evolution from the simplest single celled organism to the most complex plants and animals including man Therefore the problem of the origin of life was no longer how each species developed but only how the first living organism arose To answer this question a number of proposals have been advanced

It has been proposed that life was created by a supernatural event This has been a common belief of many people based on a literal interpretation of the first chapter of Genesis which describes the creation of all living organisms by a direct act of God This type of proposal is not considered by most scientists since it is not subject to scientific investigation

In 1903 S Arrhenius offered a second theory that life developed on the earth as a result of a pore or other stable form of life coming to the earth in a meteorite from outer space or by the pressure of sunlight driving the spores to the earth One form of this theory assumes that life had no origin but like matter has always existed The presence of long lived radioactive elements shows that the elements were formed anywhere from 5 to 12×10^9 years ago If the elements have not always existed it is difficult to understand how life could have always existed Another form of this theory assumes that life was formed on another planet and traveled to the earth This hypothesis does not answer the question of how life arose on the other planet In addition most scientists doubt that any known form of life could survive for very long in outer space and fall through the earth's atmosphere without being destroyed Therefore while this theory has not been disproved it is held to be highly improbable

A third hypothesis held that the first living organism arose from inorganic matter by a very improbable event This organism in order to grow in

en gas en ro m nt w ld h t synth ize
all f n ellul r c mp n t f m carb n dioxide
and the in g n tr nt P e e t knowl
ed f boch m try h s th t even th mple t
b e y r e e t m e l c m p l x and th t the p ba
b n y of th po ta e g n e t n f a cell f m
r p n c m p o u n d i a g l e e t i s m u h too
small to e curred in th p p r o m a t e f i b i l
b e y a r s e t h a r t h f o m a t i o

A r p l b l p p l th t l f a r s e s p n
t o l in the o c e n f the p r i m i t i v e e r t h
w h c h c o t m e d l g q t t s o f o g m
p o u n d s m u l t g h w h i n l m r
g n u m Th the r y a u t i n e d m n l y b y A I
O p a (1938) d f o r m th b s o f m o t f t h
p r i n d s o the i g n o f l f O p a n g d
m t f l a g e m t s f o g n i c m p o n d w e r e i n
t h e a r e f t h e p u n i t e a r t h t h e s e r g c m
p o u n d s l d r t t f o r m t u c t r e f g r a t e r
a d g r t e m p l x i t y t u l t t e w o l d
f e r h b l d b e c a l l e d l i v i n g i n t h w d
t h e w o r t h f t h e f i r s t l g o g a n s m w l d i

m a y n b l i c a l t e p n d n e f t h e s e
e x u l d b e b i l y i m p b a b l e

O p a n a l s o p p d t h t g a m p u n d
t e i t h a b e e n f r m d the p m t i e t h f
t h e r e d i n g a t m p h e f m t h e a m

A t d h y d o g e i t e d f t h p n t
f i n g t m o p h f b n d d t i g e

g n a n d w t e H C U y (1952) p l a d t h e
f i n g t m o p h t h e o r y f i m f d a t n

b r a h u n g t m e t h n m m o a a d w t e e
t h e t a b l f i r m s f l n t o g a d y g n f

t e e e s o f h y d g n p e t C o m c d t
e l d f r m w h b t h e r t h i b l e d t h

h o w f r m e d n t a i n a g r e a t e e f h y d g n
T p l n e t J p t S t a n d U a k w

t o b a v e a t m p h o f m t h e d m r i n a O
d l o n g d t h d e v e l p d M e r y V e

r e a t h E a r t h d M a s d t t h e p f h y

d n f l l w d b y t h p r d u t i o n o f o x y g n b y
t h e p h t h m l p l t t g o f w a t r T h e r e h a s n o t
l n u f f i e n t m e f t h h y d n t o h a e e
p d f m J p t e S a t u U N e p t n a n d
P l t w g t o t h l o w e t e m p t d h h e r
b t t a n a l t t t n

Origin of organic compounds M y i t m p t
l a b n m d t v n t h e r g i m p d
u d r x d g d t n u g c a b n d d e
a n d w a t e r w i t h v a f n g y h s
u l t r a i o l e t h h t e l e t r i d i h r g d h c h n
e g y a d i a t i o n A l l o f t h e e x p e m t f l e d t
g e o r g n i c c o m p o n d e c e p t i e t m l y s m l l
y e l d

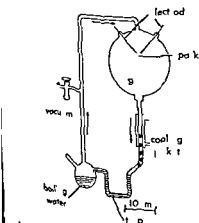
S p p t f t h e i d e a s o f O p a i a n d U y m e
f r o m x p e m t b y S L M i l l e r (1953) H
s h o w e d t h a t m t r e f m e t h n e a m m o i a w
t e d h y d r g e w h n b j e c t e d t o a n e l e c t r
d h g g e s s i g n i f i c a n t y l d f m p l e a m i
a c i d s h y d y d s a l i p h a t i c a d c a n d
p s b l y s g U l t v l e t l i g h t g u e s m l e
l t

O t h b f t h e e e p m t t s t h o u g h t
t h t a s o g m p u n d s (u h a m i o
a d h y d y a c d l p h t a c i d s a d u g s)
w e p r e t n t h e c e f t h p m t t h
I t t i l l e c s a r y t h w m e h a m f t l e f
m a t o f p l y p e p t d e s p n d p y m d i
(t h b e w h h u n l d s) n l e o t
d e s a n d p l y n u l e o t d o r f p h o p h t e
b n d e e g y (n d e e t p l p h a t) y n
t h e s f p l y p e p t d w t h t a l y t u t y f
z y m) a d t h e d e l p m t o f p l y l e t d
p b l e f l i d p l t n

Nature of first organisms I n p t l
o n m t h d p l t p c e e d b y d p l t i n
t h g f l l w d b y s t h f m e z y m
d t h e l l n t t d d o f t h c l l
i t o t w a f g m t T h e g w h h l e t d
n t h e h m m a m p e d f p l y l e o t d
a l l d d e x y r b n u c l d S C H R O
s o e G E N E N U C L E I C A C I D

S n t h e t a l h t r t f l g g a
m i t h a b i l i t y t d p l a t e t h s b r p o
p d t h t h f i s t l g o g m w e m p l y
t r p f d e o x y b o n l e a d (o p h p t p
f b n u c l e d) w h h t g e t h w t h n
v n z y m s u l d d p l t T h g n m
w o u l d b e m l t u p t t h t t w l d
h t h e e s r n z y m e s f r u t e p o d c t i n

T h v s t f e l t p f n l e
d r d d b y t f p t T h u s
p b l f d p l t n b t l y w t h n t h e r l
l l w h e t h r m k s u f t h e l l
z y m e s d m t a b l m S n e t h u a n e
p d e t e l f b t l y w t h n l n m l l t h r
i d b l d p t t w h t a u h u l d
b l l e d l g t i n a y c m y l g t
b e l e t h a t t h s w t h f i t t y p o f l
g g n m b t t h t t g r s n f m
m d e t y p e t h g m S e V i u s
I t h b p p d b y A I O p n t h a t t h
f i t g m w c r v t e p t l n t e a d o f



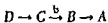
A p p a r a t u s u s e d f p o d a c t f m l d b y
w d i s c h a g W a t b l d m l l f l k
w t h g a s e l g a k w h p k l d
t h e o r y o f t h d i s c h r g d d p t h g h
w a t e r a d a c f t m l l f l k

strips of polynucleotides. A coacervate is a type of colloid which forms two phases: one of the solution and one of the coacervate. Instead of a uniform dispersion as with most colloids. It is assumed that there would be some coacervate particles which could absorb proteins and other substances from the environment, grow in size and then split into two or more fragments which would repeat this process. In time the duplication would become more accurate and the genetic apparatus of nucleic acids would then develop. See COACERVATION.

These ideas about the nature of the first organisms are based on the assumption that the first forms of life were similar to present organisms in their basic chemical composition. All present organisms contain proteins, nucleic acids, carbohydrates and lipids. While the assumption may be incorrect, it is the best working hypothesis until it can be shown to be inadequate. Other possibilities for the development of the first organisms can be enumerated, but so little is known of the composition of the primitive oceans that such speculation is not profitable.

Heterotrophic organisms. While little can be said about the development of the first living organisms, reasonable hypotheses can be made for the development of the simple bacteria, algae and protozoa from the most primitive organisms. The theory that the primitive oceans contained large quantities of organic compounds implies that the first organisms were heterotrophic. Heterotrophic organisms do not synthesize their basic constituents such as amino acids, nucleotides, carbohydrates, vitamins and so forth, but obtain them from the environment. Autotrophic organisms synthesize all their cell constituents from CO_2 , H_2O and other inorganic materials. Heterotrophic organisms are simpler than autotrophic organisms in that they contain fewer enzymes and specialized structures to carry out their metabolism. Hence heterotrophic organisms would have been formed first.

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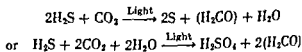
where a, b, and c are the enzymes and A, B, and C are compounds which the organism cannot synthesize. If the necessary compound A becomes exhausted from the environment, then the organism must synthesize A in order to survive. But it is extremely unlikely that there would be three simultaneous mutations to give the enzymes a, b, and c. However, a single mutation to give enzyme a would not be unlikely. If compounds D, C, and B were in the environment when A was exhausted, the organism with enzyme a could survive while the others would die out. Similarly, when compound B was ex-

hausted, enzyme b would arise by a single mutation and organisms without this enzyme would die. By continuing this process, the various steps of a biosynthetic process could be developed, the enzyme in the sequence being developed first, the first enzyme last.

Energy and biosynthetic processes. It is necessary for all living organisms to have a source of energy to drive the biochemical reactions that synthesize the various structures of the organism. The quantity that measures the available energy for a chemical reaction at constant temperature and pressure is termed the free energy (see FREE ENERGY). Animals obtain their free energy from the oxidation of organic compounds by molecular oxygen. Plants and other photosynthetic organisms obtain their free energy from the energy of light. There are also many microorganisms that obtain their free energy from fermentation reactions. For example, the lactic acid bacteria obtain their energy from the reaction



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where (HCO) means carbon on the oxidation level of formaldehyde (carbohydrate). It is much easier to split H_2S than to split H_2O , and so it would seem likely that organisms would develop photosynthesis with sulfur first. When the H_2S was exhausted, it would become necessary to split water and evolve O_2 , the hydrogen being used for the reduction of CO_2 . See CHLOROPHYLL and PHOTOSYNTHESIS.

When the methane and ammonia of the primitive atmosphere had been converted to carbon dioxide and nitrogen by photochemical decomposition in the upper atmosphere, water would be decomposed to oxygen and hydrogen. The hydrogen would escape, leaving the oxygen in the atmosphere and thereby resulting in oxidizing conditions on the earth. It is likely, however, that most of the oxygen in the atmosphere was produced by the photosyn-

tion of plants rather than by the photochemical splitting of water

Miller, J. D. *Evolution of the cell*. The evolution of multicellular organisms probably occurred after the development of photosynthesis. The evolution of primitive multicellular organisms to more complex types and the development of sexual reproduction can be understood on the basis of the theory of evolution. **S. EVOLUTION ORGANIC** [S. L. M.]

Edwards, E. S. B. *Origin of life*. *Geol. Soc. Am. Mem.* 67: 275-86, 1957. **J. D. Bernal.** *The Physical Basis of Life*. 1951. **S. L. Miller.** *The products of amino acids under primitive earth conditions*. *Science* 117: 528-9, 1953. **S. L. Miller.** *Product of some organic compounds under possible primitive conditions*. *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* 77: 2351-2361, 1955. **S. L. Miller & H. C. Urey.** *Organic compound formation on the primitive earth*. *Science* 130: 245-251, 1955. **Oparin, H.** *The Origin of Life*. 2nd ed. 1953. **G. Wald.** *The origin of life*. *Sci. Am. Am.* 191(2): 4-53, 1954. **Symposium.** *Modern ideas on the origin of life*. *N. Y. Acad. Sci.* 69(art. 1-3): 376, 1957.

Ligament

A strong flexible connective tissue band usually found between two bony processes. Most ligaments are composed of dense fibrous connective tissue formed by parallel bundles of collagen fibers. They have a hissing lary appearance and are usually jointed. This type also may form part of a joint or a separate articular surface of the bones. **Boerhaave (BIOPHYSICS).** **CONNECTIVE TISSUE.** **Boerhaave.** *Kind of ligament composed of the primary and secondary of yellow elastic tissue which is extensible.* The large ligamentum nuchae is the back of the neck and the ligaments between the vertebrae of this type also permit the bending of the neck and trunk. [E. C. S.]

Light

The term light, a commonly used, refers to the electromagnetic energy that is visible to the human eye. In a broad sense, light is the entire range of radiant energy known to the electromagnetic spectrum. The basic characteristics of light, its origin and propagation, and the phenomena associated with it, are treated in the spectroscopy, the branch of physics that deals with the production and interaction of light.

The classical theory of the nature of light must be discarded in favor of the quantum theory. The quantum theory of light is based on the fact that light is composed of small particles called photons. The photons are the elementary particles of light, and they are the carriers of the electromagnetic energy. The quantum theory of light is based on the fact that light is composed of small particles called photons. The photons are the elementary particles of light, and they are the carriers of the electromagnetic energy. The quantum theory of light is based on the fact that light is composed of small particles called photons. The photons are the elementary particles of light, and they are the carriers of the electromagnetic energy.

PRINCIPAL FACTS REGARDING LIGHT

Finite velocity. The fact that light travels at a finite speed or velocity is well established both theoretically and experimentally. This speed is so high however as to make the experimental complexities of measuring it so great that this is not a phenomenon that a single man can check for himself. The first successful measurement of the speed of light was made in 1676 by the Danish astronomer Ole Rømer, and it is that time measurement in creating precise experiments have been conducted leading to the currently accepted value of 299,792.8 km/sec. The actual numbers for the speed of light in vacuum may be said to be 186,000 miles/sec or 300,000 km/sec.

Diffraction and reflection. On the more easily observed facts about light, its tendency to travel in straight lines, careful observation shows however that a light ray spread slightly when passing the edge of an obstacle. This phenomenon is called diffraction. The reflection of light is also well known. The earth, moon, as well as all other satellites and planets in the solar system are visible only by reflected light they are self-luminous like the sun. Reflection of light from smooth optical surfaces occurs so that the angle of reflection equals the angle of incidence. The fact that most easily observed with a plane mirror. When light is reflected irregularly, diffusely, the phenomenon is termed scattering. The scattering of light by gas particles in the atmosphere causes the blue color of the sky. When the wavelength of light is of the order of the length of the light or is of the same order as the scattering is referred to as the Rayleigh effect.

Refraction. The typical bending of light rays called refraction, caused by the fact that light travels at different speeds in different media. Fast for example, in air than in either glass or water. Refraction occurs when light passes from one medium into another in which it moves at a different speed. Familiar examples include the change in direction of light rays going through a prism and the bent appearance of a stick partially immersed in water.

Interference and polarization. In the phenomena called interference, rays of light emerge from two parallel slits combine on a screen to produce alternating light and dark bands. This effect is best demonstrated in the laboratory by the interference of the light produced by a thin film of oil on the surface of a pool of water. Polarization of light is usually brought about by reflection. The scattered light is usually polarized. The two of them polarized together however the degree of the polarization of the combined light is not the same. The intensity of the light is an average of the intensity of the light to which it is polarized. The polarization of light is usually brought about by reflection. The scattered light is usually polarized. The two of them polarized together however the degree of the polarization of the combined light is not the same. The intensity of the light is an average of the intensity of the light to which it is polarized.

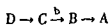
Chemical effects. When light is absorbed by a substance, chemical changes take place. The fact that the chemical changes take place of photo-

strips of polynucleotides. A coacervate is a type of colloid which forms two phases: one of the solution and one of the coacervate. Instead of a uniform dispersion as with most colloids, it is assumed that there would be some coacervate particles which could absorb proteins and other substances from the environment, grow in size, and then split into two or more fragments which would repeat this process. In time, the duplication would become more accurate, and the genetic apparatus of nucleic acids would then develop. See COACERVATION.

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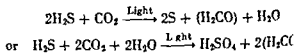
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chemistry. Rapid progress has been made toward an understanding of photosynthesis the process by which plants produce relatively complex substances such as sugars in the presence of sunlight. This is but one example of the all important response of plant and animal life to light.

Electromagnetic spectrum The electromagnetic spectrum is a broad band of radiant energy which extends over a range of wavelengths running from trillionths of inches to hundreds of miles. Wavelengths of visible light are measured in hundreds of thousandths of an inch. Arranged in order of increasing wavelength the radiation comprising the electromagnetic spectrum is termed gamma rays, x rays, ultraviolet rays, visible light, infrared waves, microwaves, radio and TV waves, and very long electromagnetic waves. Detailed descriptions of these radiations are given separately. See ELECTROMAGNETIC RADIATION and the articles listed therein. See also ABSORPTION (ELECTROMAGNETIC RADIATION), DIFFRACTION, INTERFERENCE OF WAVES, OPTICS, PHOTOCHEMISTRY, PHOTOSYNTHESIS, POLARIZED LIGHT, RAMAN EFFECT, REFLECTION (ELECTROMAGNETIC RADIATION), REFRACTION OF WAVES, SCATTERING (ELECTROMAGNETIC RADIATION), SPECTROSCOPY.

NATURE OF LIGHT

Early in the eighteenth century light was generally believed to consist of tiny particles. Of the phenomena mentioned in the preceding section—reflection, refraction, and the sharp shadows caused by the straight path of light—were well known, and the characteristic of finite velocity was suspected. All of these phenomena except refraction clearly could be expected of streams of particles, and Sir Isaac Newton showed that refraction would occur if the velocity of light increased with the density of the medium through which it traveled.

This theory of the nature of light seemed to be completely upset, however, in the first half of the nineteenth century. During that time Thomas Young studied the phenomena of interference, and could see no way to account for them unless light were a wave motion. Diffraction and polarization had also been investigated by that time. Both were easily understandable on the basis of a wave theory of light, and diffraction eliminated the sharp shadow argument for particles. Reflection and finite velocity were consistent with either picture. The final blow to the particle theory seemed to have been struck in 1849 when the speed of light was measured in different media and found to vary in just the opposite manner to that assumed by Newton. Therefore in 1850 it seemed finally to be settled that light consisted of waves.

Even then, however, there was the problem of the medium in which light waves traveled. All other kinds of waves required a physical medium, but light traveled through a vacuum—faster in fact than through air or water. The term ether was proposed by James Clerk Maxwell and his contemporaries as a name for the unknown medium, but this

scarcely solved the problem because no ether ever actually found (see ETHER HYPOTHESIS). Near the beginning of the twentieth century, certain work on the emission and absorption of energy that seemed to be understandable only if one assumed light to have a particle or corpuscular nature. The external photoelectric effect—the emission of electrons from the surfaces of certain materials when light is incident on the surface—was one of these. At that time then, science found itself in an uncomfortable position of knowing a considerable number of experimental facts about light of which some were understandable regardless of whether light consisted of waves or particles. It appeared to make sense only if light were waves, and still others seemed to require it to have a particle nature.

THEORY OF LIGHT

The study of light deals with some of the fundamental properties of the physical world. It is intimately linked with the study of the properties of submicroscopic particles on the one hand, and with the properties of the entire universe on the other. The creation of electromagnetic radiation from matter and the creation of matter from radiation, both of which have been achieved, provide fascinating insight into the unity of physics. The same is true of the deflection of light beams in strong gravitational fields, such as the bending of starlight passing near the sun.

A classification of phenomena in relation to their theoretical interpretation provides the clearest insight into the nature of light. When a detailed accounting of experimental results is required, two groups of theories appear. In the majority of cases, accounts separately for the wave and the corpuscular character of light. Quantum theories seem to solve questions concerning this dual character of light, and make classical wave theory and the simple corpuscular theory appear as two very useful limiting theories. It happens that the wave theories of light can deal with a considerable part of the phenomena involving electromagnetic radiation. Certain aspects of optics based on the wave theory of light can explain many of the more common phenomena of the propagation of light, such as refraction, provided that limitations of the underlying theory are not disregarded. See OPTICS, GEOMETRICAL.

Phenomena involving light may be classified into three groups: electromagnetic wave phenomena, corpuscular or quantum phenomena, and relativistic effects. The relativistic effect appears to influence similarly the observation of both corpuscular and wave phenomena. The major developments in the theory of light to date parallel the trends in modern physics. The developments are charted in Fig. 1 and are discussed in the remainder of this article.

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tions using the relation $c = \text{distance/time}$ and (2) phase velocity or wave velocity determinations using $c = \text{frequency/wavelength}$.

The group velocity is the average time for a light signal that is a modulated electromagnetic wave train to traverse a given distance (see GROUP VELOCITY). Rømer's original determination of the velocity of light was based on careful observations of the time of eclipse of the moons of Jupiter from various points in the earth's orbit. Subsequent terrestrial determinations making use of revolving mirrors (J. L. Foucault and A. A. Michelson) a toothed wheel (H. L. Fizeau) or an electronically modulated light beam (E. Bergstrand) all measured the time required for light to traverse the distance between a source and a reflecting mirror. These are all group velocity measurements and furnish a value of c only if the experiments are carried out in a nondispersive medium in which the velocity is the same for all wavelengths. Otherwise the group velocity is smaller than the phase velocity by 0.007% (2.2 km/sec) in air, 1.5% in water and 2.4% in ordinary crown glass. See DISPERSION (RADIATION).

Determinations of the phase velocity, which is simply the speed of the wavefront (see PHASE VELOCITY), are indirect and make the assumption that $c = \lambda f$ where f is the frequency and λ the free space wavelength of the electromagnetic radiation. Most of the measurements of this type involve microwave interference in various forms. E. F. Florman with two sources, K. D. Froome in an apparatus similar to a Michelson interferometer, L. Essen, J. P. Gordon and H. M. Smith in a microwave resonance cavity, D. H. Rank and also E. K. Plyler determined c by calculation from microwave and infrared spectroscopic measurements of the ratio of cycles per second to waves per centimeter for a certain molecular rotation frequency. The phase velocity can also be calculated from the ratio of electromagnetic to electrostatic unit. A detailed description of these experiments is found in the bibliographical references.

The measured magnitudes of the velocity of transmission and the phase velocity seem to be in reasonably good agreement among themselves, possibly to a few parts in 10^5 . However, the experimental values determined by the two methods are at an admitted and disturbing variance with one another. The velocity of light is not as constant as it is sometimes thought to be. While according to the theory of special relativity the velocity of light will be the same in any frame of reference independent of its state of motion, this is true only for frames of the same gravitational potential. Conceivably local variations of the gravitational potential could lead to variations of the measured velocity of light, although experiments for detecting the variations remain to be devised. The effect of the gravitational potential at the sun's surface or at other points in the universe is quite appreciable compared with the precision of many measurements of c . See POTENTIALS (PHYSICS).

Electromagnetic wave propagation. Electromagnetic waves can be propagated through free space devoid of matter and fields and with a constant gravitational potential through space with a varying gravitational potential and through more or less absorbing material media which may be solids, liquids or gases. Radiation can be transmitted through wave guides with cylindrical, rectangular or other boundaries, the insides of which can be either evacuated or filled with a dielectric medium. See WAVE GUIDE.

From electromagnetic theory and especially from the well known equation formulated by Maxwell, a plane wave disturbance of a single frequency f is propagated in the x direction with a phase velocity $v = \lambda f = \lambda \omega / 2\pi$ where $\omega = 2\pi f$. The wave can be described by the equation $y = A \cos(\omega t - \omega x/v)$. Two disturbances of same amplitude A of respective angular frequencies ω_1 and ω_2 and of velocities v_1 and v_2 propagated in the same direction yield the resulting disturbance y'

$$y' = y_1 + y_2 = 2A \cos \frac{1}{2}(\Delta\omega)t - x \Delta(\omega/v) \cos(\omega t - \omega x/v)$$

Here $\Delta\omega = \omega_1 - \omega_2$ and $\omega = \frac{1}{2}(\omega_1 + \omega_2)$. The ratio $u = \Delta\omega / \Delta(\omega/v)$ is defined as the group velocity, just as the ratio $v = \omega/v$ is identical with the phase velocity. In the limit for small $\Delta\omega$, $u = d\omega/d(\omega/v)$. Noting that $\omega = 2\pi/\lambda$, $d\omega = -2\pi(d\lambda/\lambda^2)$ and $d(\omega/v) = -d\lambda/v$, an important relation between group and phase velocity is obtained

$$u = v - \lambda dv/d\lambda$$

This shows that the group velocity u is different from the phase velocity v in a medium with dispersion $dv/d\lambda$. In vacuo $u = v = c$. With the help of Fourier theorems, the preceding expression for u can be shown to apply to the propagation of a wave group of infinite length but with frequencies extending over a finite small domain. Furthermore, even if the wave train were emitted with an infinite length modulation or chopping, would result in a degrading of the monochromaticity by introduction of new frequencies and hence in the appearance of a group velocity. Considerations of this nature are not trivial in measurements of the velocity of light but are quite fundamental to the conversion of instrumental readings to a value of c . Similar considerations apply to the incorporation of the effects of the medium and the boundaries involved in the experiments. Complications arise in the regions of anomalous dispersion (absorption regions) where the phase velocity can exceed c and $dv/d\lambda$ is positive. See MAXWELL'S EQUATIONS, WAVE EQUATION, WAVE MOTION.

Refractive index. A plane wave front in going from a medium in which its phase velocity is v_1 into a second medium where the velocity is v_2 changes direction at the interface. By geometry it can be shown that $\sin i / \sin r = v_1/v_2$ where i and r are the angles which the light path forms with a normal to the interface in the two media.

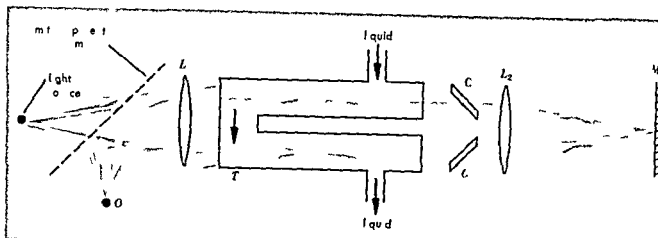


Fig 2 Fizeau's experiment for composition of velocities
M mirror L_1 L_2 lenses T tube O location of interference fringes

rather is a description of the probability of occurrence in a given region of a given interaction or observation. See HAMILTON'S EQUATIONS OF MOTION QUANTUM ELECTRODYNAMICS QUANTUM FIELD THEORY QUANTUM MECHANICS QUANTUM THEORY NONRELATIVISTIC QUANTUM THEORY RELATIVISTIC UNCERTAINTY PRINCIPLE

Relativistic effects The measured magnitudes of such characteristics as wavelength and frequency, velocity, and the direction of the radiation in a light beam are affected by a relative motion of the source with respect to the observer occurring during the emission of the signal carrying electromagnetic wave trains (see DOPPLER EFFECT). A difference in gravitational potential also affects these quantities. Several important observations of this nature are listed in this section, followed by a discussion of several important results of general relativity theory involving light. For extended discussions of both the special and the general theories of relativity, see RELATIVITY.

Velocity in moving media In 1818 A. Fresnel suggested that it should be possible to determine the velocity of light in a moving medium, for example, to determine the velocity of a beam of light traversing a column of liquid of length d and of refractive index n flowing with a velocity v relative to the observer, by measuring the optical thickness nd . The experiment was carried out by Fizeau in a modified Rayleigh interferometer shown in Fig 2 by measuring the fringe displacement in O corresponding to the reversing of the direction of flow. If v' is the phase velocity of light in the medium (deduced from the refractive index by the relation $v' = c/n$), it is found that the measured velocity v_m in the moving medium can be expressed as $v_m = v' + v(1 - 1/n^2)$ rather than $v_m = v' + v$ as would be the case with a Newtonian velocity addition.

Aberration of light J. Bradley discovered in 1725 a yearly variation in the angular position of stars, the total variation being 41 sec of arc. This effect is in addition to the well-known parallax effect and was properly ascribed to the combination

of the velocity of the earth in its orbit and the speed of light. Bradley used the amplitude of the variation to arrive at a value of the velocity of light. Sir George Airy compared the angle of aberration in a telescope before and after filling it with water and found contrary to his expectation that there was no difference in angle. See ABERRATION OF LIGHT.

Michelson-Morley experiment The famous Michelson-Morley experiment, one of the most significant experiments of all time, was performed in 1887 to measure the relative velocity of the earth through inertial space. Inertial space is space in which Newton's laws of motion hold. Dynamically, an inertial frame of reference is one in which the observed accelerations are zero if no forces act. A point in an orbit is the center of such a frame. See FRAME OF REFERENCE.

The rotation of the earth about its axis, with tangential velocities never exceeding 0.5 km/sec, is easily demonstrated mechanically (Foucault pendulum, precession of gyroscopes) and optically (Michelson's rectangular interferometer). The surface of the earth is not an inertial frame. In its orbit around the sun, on the other hand, the earth has translational velocities of the order of 30 km/sec, but this motion cannot be detected by mechanical experiments because of its orbital nature (see EARTH (ORBITAL MOTION)). The hypothesis that optical experiments would permit the detection (and measurement) of the relative motion of the earth through inertial space by comparing the time of travel of two light beams traveling in the direction of the translation through inertial space and the other at right angle to it. The hope was based on the Newtonian proposition that the velocity of a light beam would equal the constant c only when measured with respect to the inertial space, but would be measured as smaller ($c - v$) or greater ($c + v$) with respect to a reference frame which has the earth moving with a velocity v in inertial space. If a light beam were projected respectively in the direction and in the opposite direction of translation in the frame S ,

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 speculative. For a discussion of the better known
 methods a proper see UNIFIED FIELD THEORIES

also SPACE TIME [G W ST]

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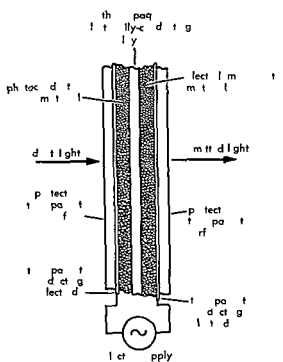
Light amplifier

An optical electrical system that reproduces a
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Simplified light amplifier (t t l)

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 l h t s l w t h s S ELECTROLUMINES
 CENCE PHOTOCONDUCTIVITY [W B B]

Light panel

A surface light that employs the pr
 p l e f e l e t l u m s c e t p d c l i g h t L h t
 p e l m p e d f t w h t f e l t r l l y
 c o n d t t m t e l o a t h n c d t g b a k i g
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 n p p t e d f p l t c e m h e t m
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 a d m l l m n t f m p d f c p p
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 f t h l i g h t m p t f o p p e m g e s
 a d d t f t h w l g h t f l i g h t m t d
 (ELECTROLUMINESCENCE)

where d is in parsecs ($1 \text{ parsec} = 3 \times 10^{18} \text{ cm}$) Red shifts in nebulae up to 11×10^9 light years distant have been measured in a comprehensive program carried out at the Mount Wilson Observatory by E. G. Hubble and M. L. Humason. See EINSTEIN SHIFT RED SHIFT

Results of general relativity The propagation of light is influenced by gravitation. This is one of the fundamental results of Einstein's general theory of relativity which has been subjected to experimental tests and found to be verified. Three important results involving light need to be singled out.

1 The velocity of light measured by the same magnitude c independently of the state of motion of the frame in which the measurement is being carried out depends on the gravitational potential Φ of the field in which it is being measured according to the equation

$$c = c_0 \left(1 + \frac{\Phi}{c^2} \right)$$

Here $\Phi = -GM/R$ where G is the universal constant of gravitation (6.670×10^{-8} cgs units) M the mass of the celestial body in grams R the radius of the body in centimeters and c_0 the velocity of light in a vacuum devoid of fields.

For example the absolute value of the term Φ/c^2 is about 3000 times greater on the sun than on earth making the measurements of c smaller by two parts in 10 on the sun as compared to measurements on earth.

2 The frequency of light emitted from a source in a gravitational field with the gravitational potential Φ is different from the frequency ν_0 emitted by an identical source (atomic nuclear molecular) in a field free region according to the equation

$$\nu = \nu_0 \left(1 + \frac{\Phi}{c^2} \right)$$

Spectral lines in sunlight should be displaced toward the red by two parts in 10 when compared to light from terrestrial sources.

3 Light rays are deflected when passing near a heavenly body according to the equation

$$\alpha = \frac{4GM}{c^2 R}$$

where α is the angular deflection in radians and R the distance of the beam from the center of the heavenly body of mass M . The deflection is directed so as to increase the apparent angular distance of a star from the center of the sun when starlight is passing near the edge of the sun. The deflection according to this equation should be 1.75 sec of arc a value which compares favorably with eclipse measurements of the star field around the sun in 1931. The measurements indicated values up to 2.2 sec of arc when compared with photographs of the same field 6 months earlier. This most sensational prediction of Einstein's theory might seem like surpri

character of light is widely known and when a Newtonian M/R^2 attraction might be considered to be involved in the motion of a corpuscle with the velocity c past the sun. However application of Newton's law predicts a deviation only half as great as the reasonably well verified relativistic prediction.

Matter and radiation The possibility of creating a pair of electrons—a positively charged one (positron) and a negatively charged one (negatron)—by a rapidly varying electromagnetic field (γ rays of high frequency) was predicted as a consequence of Dirac's wave equation for a free electron and has been experimentally verified by Curie and F. Joliot as well as J. Chadwick, P. M. S. Blackett, G. P. Occhialini and others have compared the number of positrons and negatrons ejected by γ rays passing through a thin sheet of lead (and other materials) and have found them to be the same after accounting for two other groups of electrons also appearing in the experiment (photoelectrons and recoil electrons). Other examples of negatron-positron pair production include the collision of two heavy particles, a fast electron passing through the field of a nucleus, the direct collision of two electrons, the collision of two light quanta in vacuo, and the action of a nuclear field on a γ ray emitted by the nucleus involved in the action.

Evidence of the creation of matter from radiation as well as that of radiation from matter substantiates Einstein's equation

$$E = mc^2$$

which was first expressed in the following way:

If a body [of mass m] gives off the energy E in the form of radiation its mass diminishes by E/c^2 .

In regard to exchanges of energy and momentum electromagnetic waves behave like a group of particles of energy

$$E = mc^2 = h\nu$$

and momentum $p = h\nu/c = h/\lambda$

Finally many experiments with photons indicate that they also possess an intrinsic angular momentum as do particles. Circularly polarized light, for example, carries an experimentally observable angular momentum and it can be shown that under certain circumstances an angular momentum is imparted to unpolarized or plane polarized light (plane wave passing through a finite circular aperture). In any case the angular momentum will be quantized in units of $h/2\pi$.

The inverse process to the creation of electron pairs is the annihilation of a positron and a negatron resulting in the production of two γ quanta (two quantum annihilation). Nuclear reactions are known to involve similar processes. See CHAIN REACTION, NUCLEAR ELEMENTARY PARTICLES, INFRARED ENERGY, PAIR PRODUCTION (ELECTRON-POSITRON).

Unified field theories In conclusion one might mention the so-called unified field theories. The

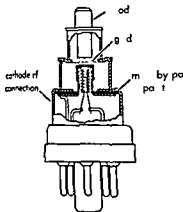


Fig. 1 Light set b c t w y d w g (K R
 1948) V c u m T b McG w H I I 1948)

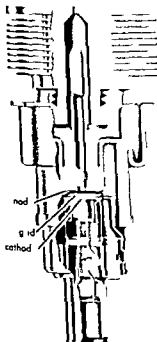


Fig. 2 Med m-p w (light) s be with pl t t
 long nd (G I E I et)

ent It w ld th seem importa t th t th n
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A later fo m f tube i shown in Fig 2 In this
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 t h a n o d e c a n b e i n c r e a s e d T h e t b s h o w n u e a c e
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 S e e V A C U U M T U B E [K R S]

Lightning

The larg park l h t p o d c e d b y a n a b r u p t
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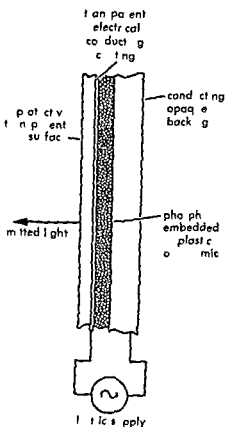
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 T h r r t f t r t r n t k e s i c e s
 e r g f b o t 6 t a m m u m a l f

In contrast to incandescent vapor discharge and fluorescent lamps which are essentially point or line sources of light the electroluminescent light panel is essentially a surface source of light. Complete freedom of size and shape is a fascinating aspect of luminescent cells.

Brightness of the panel depends upon the voltage applied to the phosphor layer and upon the electrical frequency. In general, higher voltage and higher frequency both result in a brighter panel. Blue green red or yellow light can be produced by the choice of phosphor and the proper blend of the colors produces white light. Color can be varied for a particular phosphor by changing the frequency of the applied voltage. Increasing the frequency shifts the color toward the blue end of the spectrum.



Simplified sketch of an electroluminescent cell (not to scale)

The efficiency of the electroluminescent panels is only a fraction of that of the most efficient fluorescent lamps. Theoretical limits indicate, however, that the efficiency can be further improved, probably to exceed that for fluorescent lamp. Because panel lights employ no filaments and no evacuated or gas-filled bulbs, replacement of units is virtually eliminated. Glareless uniform distribution of light from large area sources is possible without shade, baffle, or other control devices. See ILLUMINATION. [WBB]

Lighthouse

A distinctive structure built on or near a shore which exhibits a light of distinctive characteristic to serve as an aid to navigation. Letter light may



Lighthouse on a coastal headland (U.S. Coast Guard)

be displayed from fixed structures called beacons or from floating buoys or lightships.

The characteristics of the lights displayed by lighthouses are given in light lists available to mariners and in abbreviated form on charts. Some lights have one or more sectors in which the light appears red, usually to warn of some danger in this sector. In other sectors most lights are white.

Lighthouses have been diverse in structure and type of light. Towers up to 200 ft were constructed along the Mediterranean coast of Egypt many centuries before Christ with beacon fires maintained by priests. Logs, coal, oil, gas, and finally electricity have been used to provide lights. An attendant is continuously on duty at many light houses, but some are unattended and some recent installations are controlled remotely from a convenient location. See PILOTING. [ABM]

Bibliography: U.S. Coast Guard *Aids to Navigation Manual*, CG 22⁹, 1950. N. B. Waditch, *American Practical Navigator*, U.S. Navy Hydrographic Office, H.O. 9, 1958.

Lighthouse tube

A special type of triode developed to operate at very high frequencies. A limitation of conventional tubes for operation at high frequencies occurs because of considerable circuit impedance associated with the wire leads that are attached to the electrodes. The electrode leads individually have considerable self-inductance and there is also considerable stray capacity between them. In addition, the most efficient circuits for operation at the ultra-high frequencies are cavity rather than lumped cir-

quently exceeding 30 000 amp but sometimes as high as 200 000 amp It decreases to about one half the maximum value in an average of about 24μ ec Average currents during the strokes are of the order of 10 000 amp and about 500 amp may flow through the ionized channel in the interval between strokes A reasonable estimate of the diameter of the channel appears to be about 10 cm The high currents lead to thunder and are mainly responsible for the damage caused by lightning

See ATMOSPHERIC ELECTRICITY CLOUD PHYSICS
TERRESTRIAL ELECTRICITY THUNDERSTORM

[L J B]

Lightning and surge protection

Means of protecting electrical systems buildings and other property from lightning and other high voltage surges

The destructive effects of natural lightning are well known Studies of lightning and means of either preventing its striking an object or passing the stroke harmlessly to ground have been going on since the days when Franklin first established that lightning is electricity (see ATMOSPHERIC ELECTRICITY LIGHTNING) From these studies two conclusions emerge (1) lightning will not strike an object if it is placed in a grounded metal cage and (2) lightning tends to strike in general the highest objects on the horizon



Fig 1 Installation of lightning rod on a home

One practical approximation of the grounded metal cage is the well known lightning rod or mast (Fig 1) The effectiveness of this device is evaluated on the cone of protection principle The protected area is the space enclosed by a cone having the mast top as the apex of the cone and tapering out to the base Laboratory tests and field experience have shown that if the radius of the base of the cone is equal to the height of the mast equipment inside this cone will rarely be struck A radius equal to twice the height of the mast gives a cone of shielding within which a hit will occasionally occur The cone of protection principle is illustrated in Fig 2 See LIGHTNING ROD

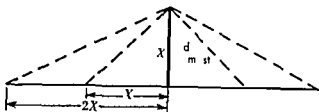


Fig 2 Cone of protection of a lightning rod or mast

A building which stands alone like the Empire State in New York City is struck many times by lightning during a season It is protected with a mast and the strokes are passed harmlessly to ground It is interesting to note however that lightning has been observed to strike part way down the side of this building (Fig 3) This shows that lightning does not always follow the paths prescribed for it by man but will occasionally dodge the protective devices provided

The probability that a building will be struck by lightning is considerably less if the building is located in a valley Therefore electric transmission lines which must cross mountain ranges usually will be routed through the gaps to avoid the direct exposure of the ridges

Overhead lines of electric power companies are vulnerable to lightning Lightning appears on the lines as a transient voltage which if of sufficient magnitude will either flash over or puncture the weakest point in the system insulation

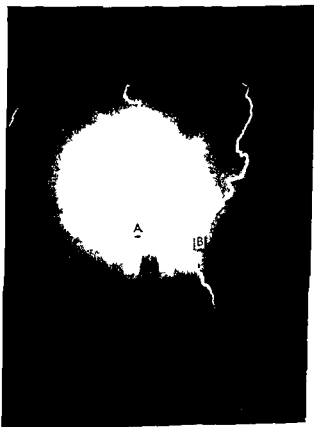


Fig 3 A multiple lightning stroke to Empire State Building adequately building Aug 23 1936 B single continuing lightning stroke to Empire State Building Aug 24 1936

Many of the troubles that cause service interruption on electrical systems are the result of failures of insulation. No permanent damage has been done at the point of failure, and service can be restored as soon as the cause of the trouble has disappeared. A puncture of the insulation on the other hand, requires repair work and damaged apparatus must be removed from service.

There are a number of protective devices to limit the extent of lightning damage to electric power system equipment. The word protective is used to connote the one or two functions of the prevention of trouble to the limitation of the effect of various protective measures. It has been devised to prevent lightning from entering the system and to dissipate its energy safely.

Overhead ground wires and lightning rods. These devices are used to prevent lightning from striking the electric system.

The grounded metal-cage principle applied by overhead ground wires, preferably two, is used over the transmission line conductor and grounded at high towers. The ground wire must be properly located with respect to the phase con-

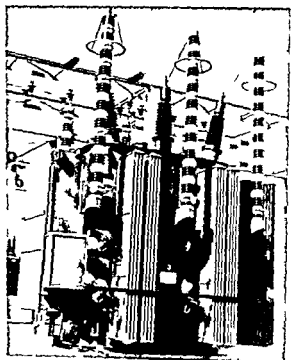


Fig. 5. Tall tower of the General Electric Company, 121 kV line-to-ground potential, 20,000 kV phase-to-phase potential.

ductors and have adequate clearance from them both at the tower and throughout the span. If tower footing resistances are too high, they must be lowered to acceptable values with direct ground rods with buried counterpoises. The lightning stroke current must have a sufficient low impedance path to ground so that the lightning also follows this path. The high resistance to flash back to the line conductors (Fig. 4).

The ground wires are often brought in on the transmission line. For additional shielding of the substation, lightning rods are installed. Service is usually obtained from the dedicated protection.

Lightning arresters. These protective devices reduce the transient overvoltage level is compatible with the terminal potential. They are connected in parallel with the equipment to be protected. One end of the arrester is grounded and also connected to the equipment being protected. The other end is connected to the electric conductor (Fig. 5).

A lightning arrester provides a relatively low discharge path to ground for the transient overvoltage and a relatively high resistance to the power system flow so that the arrester does not use as much material.

In selecting an arrester to protect a transmission line, the arrester levels that are to be maintained must be coordinated with the lightning surge magnitude of the system. The arrester must be coordinated with the lightning surge magnitude of the system. The arrester must be coordinated with the lightning surge magnitude of the system.

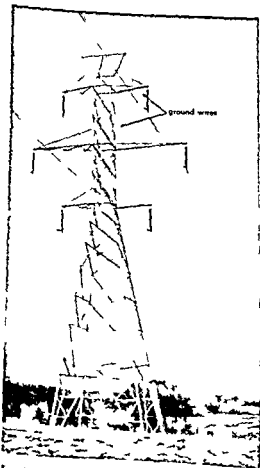


Fig. 4. Double suspension tower with the Olive-Goodey Co. 345 kV transmission line with two ground wires. (Diana and Michig. Elec. & C. America Electric Power Co.)

ages on various magnitudes of discharge currents arrester lead lengths and other factors must all be evaluated See LIGHTNING ARRESTER

Rod gaps These also are devices for limiting the magnitude of the transient overvoltages. They usually are formed of two $\frac{1}{2}$ -in square rods one of which is grounded and the other connected to the line conductor. They have no inherent arc quenching ability and every operation is usually associated with a system outage.

These devices are applied on the principle that if an occasional flashover is to occur in a station it is best to predetermine the point of flashover so that it will be away from any apparatus that might otherwise be damaged by the attendant short circuit current.

The flashover characteristics of rod gaps are such that they turn up much faster on steep wave-front surges than the withstand voltage characteristics of apparatus with the result that if a gap is set to give a reasonable margin of protection on slow wave front surges there may be little or no protection for steep wave front surges. Also the gap characteristics may be adversely affected by weather.

Rod gaps will limit transient overvoltages. They have no inherent arc quenching ability and once becoming conducting they continue to arc until the system voltage is removed. Since each operation is a system outage they should not be considered an arrester.

Immediate reclosure This is a practice for restoring service after the trouble occurs by immediately reclosing automatically the line power circuit breakers after they have been tripped by a short circuit. The protective devices involved are the power circuit breaker and the fault detecting and reclosing relays.

This practice is successful because the majority of the short circuits on overhead lines are the result of flashovers of insulators and there is no permanent damage at the point of fault. The fault may be either line to ground or between phases. Reclosing relays are available to reenergize the line only once or three times with adjustable time intervals between reclosures.

If the relays go through the full sequence of reclosing and the fault has not cleared they lock out. If the fault has cleared after a reclosure the relays return to normal.

Permanent faults must always be located and removed from a system and the accepted electric protective devices are power circuit breaker and suitable protective relays. See CIRCUIT TESTING ELECTRICAL ELECTRIC PROTECTIVE DEVICES

[E. M. H.]

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Lightning arrester

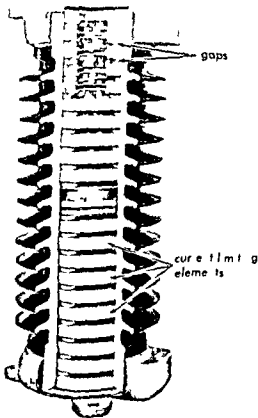
A protective device designed primarily for connection between a conductor of an electrical system and ground to limit the magnitude of transient overvoltages on equipment.

The valve arrester consists of a single gap or multiple gaps in series with a current limiting element. The gaps between spaced electrodes prevent the flow of current through the arrester except when the voltage across them exceeds the critical gap flashover. They reclose when the voltage returns to normal. The current limiting (valve) element reduces the current flowing through the arrester and aids the gaps to reclose.

The current limiting element is a nonlinear resistor whose resistance decreases substantially as the voltage across it increases.

Other types of arresters called expulsion arresters have spaced electrodes in an interrupting chamber which contains gas evolving material.

System overvoltages may be of either external or internal origin that is lightning or switching. The arrester is unable to determine the origin of the overvoltage and must attempt to limit the magnitude of all abnormal voltages above the gap spark over voltage. Hence a lightning arrester is really a voltage surge arrester.



Therick (gap spark) Itge) Thy to m g 1
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oltage Cut-away ecto h w mag et gap struc
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Important application characteristics of arresters are (1) gap sparkover (normal frequency and impulse) (2) gap residual voltage (maximum permissible residual frequency voltage across the arrester) (3) discharge rate (average rate of arcing) (4) type of discharge (average rate of arcing) and (5) discharge capability.

The gap sparkover voltage and the discharge rate determine the maximum current that can be permitted by the arrester. They are the measures by which the protective efficiency of arresters is determined. The discharge capability is a measure of the arrester's endurance under high surge conditions.

Arresters are classified into intermediate and distribution station arresters. The intermediate arresters are used for the protection of apparatus in important substations where the most efficient protection is desired. Intermediate arresters are also used for the protection of the transmission line apparatus. The distribution arresters are used for the protection of the distribution apparatus. The distribution arresters are used for the protection of the distribution apparatus.

[E M H]

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Lightning rod

A metal rod set up on an exposed elevation of a structure and connected to a low resistance ground to intercept and provide a direct conducting path to ground for lightning discharges that might otherwise damage the structure being protected. Lightning rods are also called lightning mast.

The effectiveness of the protection obtained depends upon (1) the sufficient length of the terminal end of the rod for the lightning stroke to terminate on it rather than on the protected structure (2) sufficient conductivity (rod) cross section to carry the lightning strike current to ground and (3) a low resistance ground connection. See LIGHTNING AND SURGE PROTECTION

[E M H]

Light year

A unit of measurement of astronomical distance. A light year is the distance light travels in 1 year. One light year is equivalent to 9.461×10^{10} kilometers or 5.879×10^{10} miles. Distances to some of the nearest stellar objects measured in units of light time are shown in the table.

| Object | Distance from Earth (light years) |
|---------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| Moon (m) | 1.3 sec |
| Sun (m) | 8.3 min |
| Mars (lowest) | 31 min |
| Jupiter (lowest) | 33 min |
| Polaris (lowest) | 53 hr |
| Nearest star (Proxima Centauri) | 4.3 yr |

The unit while useful for astronomical purposes is of little practical value in telling distance in the old method of calculating the astronomical unit. PARALLAX (ASTRONOMY) PARSEC.

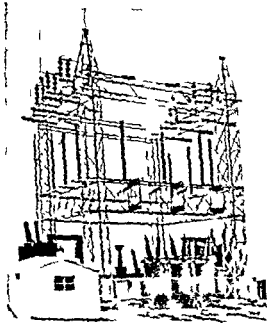
[J L C H]

Lignite

The name of the group of consolidated lignitic coal with a heat value less than 8300 Btu/lb on a moist mine as mined basis. Unclassified lignitic coal are called bituminous except in Europe where all lignitic coals are designated as brown coal. The brown coals of Germany which they represent largely important, have a calorific value of about 7000 Btu/lb. The soft brown coal are classified as rich, dull, and the hard as dull (metallurgical) and bright (glance) coal. The glance brown coals are bituminous coal and the dull are subbituminous coal.

Over 90% of lignite in the United States is in the northern tier of states principally in North Dakota and Wyoming in the Fort Union (Paleocene) formation. All but a fraction of the lignite in the United States is combined in the form of a fuel and power. Lignite is used in any great distance from the point of origin. It is usually converted to liquid gas.

[C H C]



Outdoor burning of waste material in a large pile. The pile is covered with a layer of material, and the burning is taking place. The structure is a large, open-sided building with a flat roof.

Lignumvitae

A tree *Guaiacum sanctum* also known as holywood *lignumvitae* which is cultivated to some extent in southern California and tropical Florida. *Lignumvitae* is native in the Florida keys Bahamas West Indies and Central and South America. It is an evergreen tree of medium size with abruptly pinnate leaves. The tree yields a resin or gum known as gum guaiac or resin of guaiac which is used in medicine. The very heavy black heartwood is used in bowling balls blocks and pulleys and parts of instruments. Other species include *G. coulteri*, *G. guatemalense* and *G. officinale*. See FORREST AND FORESTRY TREE [A H G]

Liliales

A large and important order of the plant subclass Monocotyledoneae arranged in 7 families with 427 genera and approximately 8000 species. The flower parts occur mainly in 3s or multiples of 3 and the endosperm is fleshy. One half the genera and species belong to the lily family (Liliaceae) of the warm temperate and tropical regions—the most representative monocot family. Members of this family supply food (including asparagus onions and garlic) fiber and drugs many are prized as ornamentals.

Colchicum autumnale or meadow saffron yields colchicine an important alkaloid drug. Other families of this order are the rush family (Juncaceae) the bloodwort family the yam family (Dioscoreaceae) a valuable food producing group the treelily family with two genera of tropical plants the amaryllis family (Amaryllidaceae) with many ornamentals several species of *Agave* valued as a source of fiber and pulque a popular Mexican drink and the iris family (Iridaceae) with many ornamentals such as iris gladiolus and *Crocus*. *Crocus sativus* or saffron yields an important yellow dye used as a flavoring material and a coloring in medicines and food. *Sarsaparilla* a flavoring material is obtained from the roots of at least four species of the genus *Smilax*. See ASPARAGUS COLCHICINE GARLIC ONION SAFFRON SARSAPARILLA SISAL see also EMBRYOPHYTES MONOCOTYLEDONEAE PLANT KINGDOM [P D S]

Limbargite

A dark glass rich igneous rock with abundant large crystals (phenocrysts) of olivine and pyroxene and with little or no feldspar.

The glass is brown and usually alkali rich. Phenocrysts are well formed and the pyroxene shows zonal structure (diopside cores and titanium rich margins). Small quantities of feldspathoid hornblende and biotite may be present. Granules of titanium iron oxide are abundant and wide spread.

Limbargite is a rare rock and forms lava flows and small intrusive bodies (dikes sills and plugs). It is associated with basanite and alkali basaltic rocks. It probably originates from basaltic magmas and lavas by accumulation of olivine and pyroxene

crystals under the influence of gravity. Thus limbargite may grade through oceanite to basalt. See BASALT IGNEOUS ROCKS [C A C]

Lime (botanical)

An acid citrus fruit *Citrus aurantifolia* usually grown in tropical regions because of its low cold resistance. The two principal groups of limes are the West Indian or Mexican and the Tahiti. The West Indian lime is a small tree with irregular branches having short stiff sharp spines. The fruit is small (walnut sized) and strongly acid. It is more sensitive to cold than the Tahiti lime which is a more vigorous tree bearing fruits of lemon size.



Acid lime *Citrus aurantifolia* (F m L H Bailey ed The Standard Cyclopaedia of Horticulture vol 2 Macmillan 1937)

In the United States limes are grown commercially in southern Florida the state leading in lime acreage with 8000 acres and also in the warmer areas of southern California. The average annual value of this crop from 1948 to 1958 was \$1 135 500.

Limes are used in frozen sherbets and in beverages such as ades and in alcoholic drinks. The juice has many culinary uses such as flavoring in jellies jams marmalades and as garnishing for fish and meats. See FRUIT (BOTANY) FRUIT (TREE) [F E C]

Lime (industrial)

A general term for the various products of calcined limestone for example quicklime and hydrated lime. Principal uses of lime are in mortar stucco and plaster for the building industry as a flux in the metallurgical industry as a refractory for lining open hearth furnaces as addition to soils either for agricultural purpose or to talis roadbeds as a chemical raw material in the production of glasses and also in water purification sewage treatment pulp and paper production.

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A tree *Guaiacum sanctum* also known as holywood lignumvitae which is cultivated to some extent in southern California and tropical Florida. Lignumvitae is native in the Florida keys, Bahamas, West Indies and Central and South America. It is an evergreen tree of medium size with abruptly pinnate leaves. The tree yields a resin or gum known as gum guaiac or resin of guaiac which is used in medicine. The very heavy black heartwood is used in bowling balls, blocks and pulleys and parts of instruments. Other species include *G. coulteri*, *G. guatemalense* and *G. officinale*. See FOREST AND FORESTRY TREE [A H G]

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Limbürgite

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The glass is brown and usually alkali rich. Phenocrysts are well formed and the pyroxene shows zonal structure (diopside cores and titanium rich margins). Small quantities of feldspathoid, hornblende and biotite may be present. Crystals of titanium iron oxide are abundant and widespread.

Limbürgite is a rare rock and forms lava flows and small intrusive bodies (dikes, sills and plugs). It is associated with basanite and alkali basaltic rocks. It probably originates from basaltic magma and lavas by accumulation of olivine and pyroxene

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Limes are used in frozen sherbet and in beverages such as ades and in alcoholic drink. The juice has many culinary uses, such as flavoring in jellies, jams, marmalades, and as garnishing for fish and meats. See FRUIT (BOTANY), FRUIT (TREE) [F F C]

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A general term for the various products of calcined limestone, for example quicklime and hydrated lime. Principal uses of lime are in mortar, stucco, and plaster for the building industry, as a flux in the metallurgical industry, as a refractory for lining open hearth furnaces, as additive to soil, either for agricultural purpose or to stabilize roadbed, as a chemical raw material in the production of glass, and also in water purification, sewage treatment, pulp and paper production.

intergranular calcite. If the particles are of size the rock is termed calcarenite. In general the mechanically deposited limestones show the same kinds of sedimentary structures as do clastic rocks. Cross bedding, stratification, current lineation and even graded bedding may be displayed. Oolitic and pisolitic textures are most abundant in limestones. See OOLITE and PISOLITE.

Secondary textural features that are found in limestones include stylolites (cross cutting veinlets filled with calcite) and replacement effects (typically that of rhombohedron of dolomite replacing calcite). Because the carbonate minerals are relatively soluble in aqueous solutions and because of the transformation of aragonite to calcite and calcite to dolomite recrystallization and other diagenetic effects are particularly common in limestones. See STYLOLITES.

Classification. Limestones are divided into two major groups: the autochthonous and allochthonous. The autochthonous limestones have been formed in place by organic or biogenic precipitation from the water of the environment, usually seawater. The allochthonous have been transported from the site of original precipitation, the depositional agent primarily responsible being current action. The total distance of transport of allochthonous particles may not be great; the transportation is mainly a process of moving a chemical precipitate from one part of a sedimentary basin to another. Carbonate minerals of sand or finer sizes are rarely found in surface streams and rivers; for they are too soluble in water to persist for any distance.

Autochthonous limestones. Primary agents in the formation of autochthonous limestones are the lime-secreting organisms. Most important of these are the calcareous algae such as *Lithothamnion* and *Halimeda*, two forms that make up the major part of reef limestones. Foraminifera also contribute large quantities of carbonate. Other groups of carbonate rock-forming invertebrates are mollusks, echinoderms (in particular the crinoids), and corals. Although many reefs are termed coral reefs, quantitatively the corals play a secondary role in carbonate accumulation. See ALGAL FOSSILS.

The most common autochthonous limestone has been called *normal marine lime*. Although whole fossils or parts of them are plentiful, the bulk of the rock may not be recognizable as fossil debris. Much of the now unrecognizable material probably came from calcareous algae or other biogenic carbonate that may have been broken up into very small particles by the action of bottom-dwelling scavengers. Inorganic precipitation may account for some of the fine-grained calcite. The rock is light-colored and normally has moderately well-developed bedding. Dolomitization is common, as are chert nodules.

Some limestone formed by the accumulation of organic structures may be either autochthonous or allochthonous. Among the varieties included in this group are (1) biohermal lime, (2) biostromal lime, and (3) pelagic lime.

(1) Biohermal limestones are reefs or reeflike mounds of carbonate that accumulated in much the same fashion as the modern reefs and atolls of the Pacific Ocean. The mounds may range from a few feet up to several thousand feet in diameter and hundreds of feet thick. Some of the best described fossil reefs are those of the Silurian system in Illinois, Indiana, and Wisconsin. The central core of the reef is fossiliferous, dolomitized, and massive. It grades radially outward into sparsely fossiliferous, well-bedded reef flank strata that commonly dip away from the core. Farther away from the core the reef flank beds grade into fine-grained, well-bedded, relatively unfossiliferous normal carbonate inter-reef sediment. See BIOHERM.

(2) Biostromal limestones are biogenic carbonate accumulations that are laterally uniform in thickness, in contrast to the moundlike nature of bioherms. The fossils may be of many different kinds or they may be dominated by a single group. Particularly common are crinoidal and algal biostromes. The algal biostromes may have very few recognizable fossils, but stromatolites and algal laminations are common. Many of the biostromes are of mixed autochthonous and allochthonous origin; for some of the fossil debris shows evidence of transport. See BIOSTROME, STROMATOLITE.

(3) Pelagic limestones are formed from the accumulation of the limy parts of pelagic or floating organisms such as foraminifera. The resulting limestones are fine-grained and contain very few fossils of bottom-dwelling faunas. Since the foraminifera are chiefly responsible for pelagic lime, and the lime-secreting pelagic foraminifera did not evolve until the Cretaceous, pelagic limestones are restricted to Cretaceous and later systems. See FORAMINIFERA FOSSILS.

Allochthonous limestones. The allochthonous or transported lime tones show clastic textures typical of detrital rocks. The elastic particles may be of fossils, as in coquina or coquinoid lime, or of inorganically precipitated carbonate particles as in oolite or earlier deposited lime tone.

See CALCARENITE, CHALK, COQUINA, MARL, SEDIMENTARY ROCKS, SEDIMENTATION (GEOLOGY), TRAVERTINE, TUFFA. [R5]

Bibliography. 1. Cayeux, Les Roches Carbonatées 1935.

Limiter circuit

An electronic circuit used to prevent the amplitude of an electrical waveform from exceeding a desired level while preserving the shape of the waveform at a level higher than the specified level. Such a limiter may be used to prevent the excursion of a waveform from exceeding a specified level in either the positive or negative going direction or in both simultaneously.

Limiting is usually accomplished by making use of the nonlinear voltage-current relationship in an electronic device. A common device is a vacuum tube used as a clamp (see CLAMPING CIRCUIT). Often the key element in a limiter circuit is the voltage

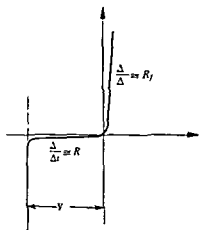


Fig. 1 Voltage-current characteristic of diode

current characteristics of typical semiconductor devices. Fig. 1 shows the characteristic of the forward-biased diode. The characteristic may be approximated by a linear relationship $\Delta V / \Delta I \approx R_f$. The slope might range from a few ohms for junction diodes to several hundred ohms for a typical ac-met. The characteristic may be approximated by a linear relationship $\Delta V / \Delta I \approx R$ for the reverse-biased diode. At this point, known as the breakdown voltage, the current becomes essentially independent of voltage (except for a small increase). The sharp transition that occurs is the Zener effect. The Zener effect may be used for limiting.

The $\Delta V / \Delta I$ (both in the forward and reverse) is illustrated in Fig. 2. The positive limit of the

output waveform is limited approximately at the reverse voltage V_R and the negative limit is limited at a level $-V_R$ corresponding to the breakdown voltage (magnitude). Sharp limiting in the forward direction is achieved with the forward resistance R_f . In comparison, the reverse bias resistance R when R_f is small compared to R and when any hunting and resistance R_2 is large compared to R_f .

The vacuum diode may be used as a limiter using the forward reverse bias region. But it has no useful breakdown similar to the Zener region of the junction diode. If either positive or negative limiting is required, either a vacuum rectifier diode or a diode may be used with the reverse voltage as the diode polarity reversed. If bidirectional limiting is desired, the circuit of Fig. 3 may be used with two diodes connected separately. It ages.

Vacuum tube electronic circuits also may be used as limiters. Grid current limiting of a vacuum tube is shown in Fig. 4. Normally when used as an amplifier, the grid is connected with respect to the cathode as the input resistance is high. If the grid becomes positive with respect to the cathode, grid current flows and the input resistance is low. In this respect, the grid-cathode circuit of the tube behaves as a vacuum diode with the waveform limited as shown. The plate circuit is a simple amplifier circuit and the amplifier plate load is the same as the normal load port is connected to the load.

The circuit in Fig. 5 is a limiter for the output of a tube. The tube may also be used to limit the input. The circuit of a device and the output characteristic which may be plotted with the device shown in Fig. 5. For the purpose of the family of

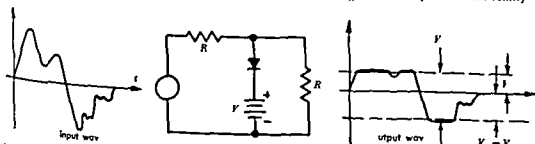


Fig. 2 Circuit of Zener diode limiter

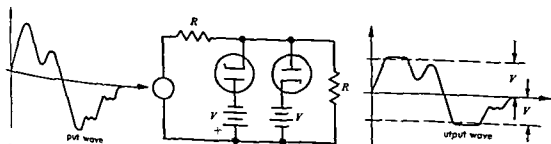


Fig. 3 Bidirectional limiting circuit

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See CALCARENITE, CHALK, COQUINA, MARINE SEDIMENTARY ROCKS, SEDIMENTATION (GEOLOGY), TRAVERTINE, TUFA.

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production for productivity. Lakes with poor phytoplankton due to the production of organic materials and high turbidity are called eutrophic lakes. Lakes with excellent physical conditions for the production of organic materials and with high nutrient levels are known as oligotrophic lakes. Lakes tend to become more productive through the activities of various organisms, passing from oligotrophic to eutrophic types.

Factors influencing productivity The primary factors affecting the productivity of aquatic organisms are light and certain inorganic and organic substances dissolved in the water or contained in the associated bottom material. These substances include dissolved gases, mineral nutrients of which are oxygen, nitrogen, carbon dioxide, and dissolved solids such as compounds of nitrogen, phosphorus, and other elements. All of these have an interrelated chemical reaction. The primary factor of body of water controlling the velocity and limiting the productivity of aquatic life is the shape, area, various dimensions, bottom topography, temperatures, currents, turbidity, amount of light penetration, and other physical conditions.

Food cycles The aquatic organisms develop from the same basic principles as those that support terrestrial organisms. The basic organisms are plants which use the raw nutrient substances and support the animals by complicated food chains. Definite cycles are maintained between the organisms and the nutrients the chemical elements being converted into biological materials which are decomposed back into the gaseous and dissolved nutrients. The whole process is based on the physical

synthesis of all aquatic plants utilizing solar energy received by radiation and is controlled by the various physical factors. The transfer of energy can be traced through the various levels of the food chain.

General habits of organisms The aquatic organisms are grouped into various categories according to where they live. The most outstanding groups are the microscopic plants and animals suspended in the open water, the plankton, the organisms living in or on the bottom, the benthos, the larger free-swimming animals, the nekton, and the rooted plants or pondweed living in the shallow water.

Zonation in aquatic habitats Standing water is divided into zones according to the conditions for life. The littoral zone is the shallow area limited by the depth of sufficient light penetration for growth of rooted plants. The limnetic zone is the open water beyond the littoral zone and is inhabited by plankton and some nekton. The profundal zone exists below the limnetic zone in waters deep enough to develop temperature stratification, which restricts the year-round restriction of the waters from circulating with the open water. Running waters are divided mainly into zones created by condition of current and by related bottom types. In fast water (rapids) zones are divided into riffles (pools) zones, each with characteristic organisms. See *ECOLOGY. FRESH WATER ECOSYSTEM. LAKE. MARINE ECOSYSTEM. OCEANOGRAPHY. PHOTOSYNTHESIS* [S.E.]

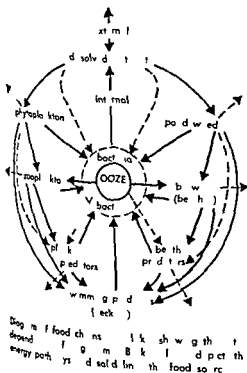
Bibliography G. E. Hutchinson, *A Treatise in Limnology*, 1957. R. L. Limnology, *Seasonal food-cycle dynamics in a eutrophic lake*, *Am. Midland Nat.* 26(3): 636-673, 1941. F. R. Turner, *Fundamentals of Limnology*, 1953. P. S. Welch, *Limnology*, 2d ed., 1952.

Limonite

A naturally occurring amorphous, porous material consisting in part of the material known as brown iron ore. Limonite occurs in millimetric, stalactitic, and earthy masses. The hardness is 1-5.5 (Mohs scale) and the specific gravity is 3.6-4. The luster is vitreous and the color is brown to black. Limonite is essentially $\text{FeO}(\text{OH}) \cdot n\text{H}_2\text{O}$ but with admixed hematite, clay, and magnesia. Descriptive analysis shows that the material is formerly thought to be limonite, goethite, or limonite formed by the oxidation of pyrite, pyrrhotite, or occurs with goethite. It is the pigments in yellow, brown, and mixed with fine layers of yellow ochre. S. GOETHITE. IRON (EXTRACTION FROM ORE). ORE AND MINERAL DEPOSITS [C.S.H.]

Limpet

Any of several species of the Class Gastropoda, phylum Mollusca, characterized by a nical, tailed, shell. Two families are generally recognized, the Acanthina and the Neritimorpha, which have a small, pear-shaped, apical shell or none.



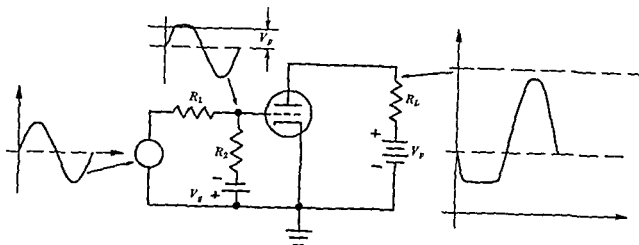


Fig. 4 Grid-current limiting

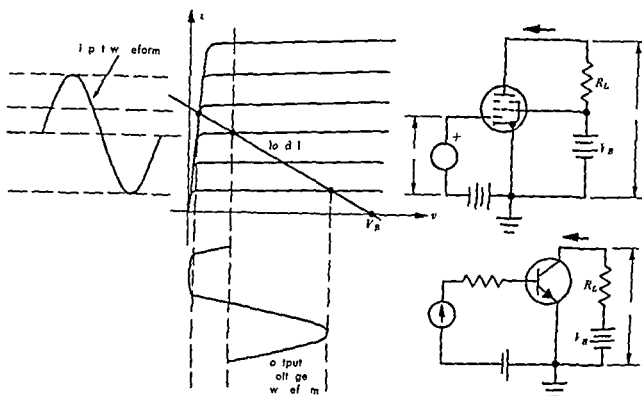


Fig. 5 Output circuit saturation limiting

curves represents plate current as a function of plate voltage for various values of grid voltage for the transistor they are collector current as a function of collector voltage for values of base current (see PENTODE VACUUM TRANSISTOR CONNECTION). Either *n p n* or *p n p* transistors may be used according to the desired polarity of the output waveform. The graphical construction shows the input-output transfer characteristic determined by the input signal swing and the value of the load resistance R_L . The output is limited by the saturation characteristic.

The term limiter is often defined in sufficiently broad terms to include the related operation of clipping (see CLIPPING CIRCUIT) which also results in the deletion of a portion of a waveform. Limiters and clippers are often used together particularly where both negative and positive peaks of

a resultant waveform are to be removed rather than bidirectional limiting used alone.

For other wave shaping circuits see WAVE SHAPING CIRCUITS [G.M.C.]

Limnology

The science of the life and conditions for life in lakes, ponds, and streams. It involves the study of the physical and chemical conditions of bodies of water and the production of all organisms subject to these conditions. The ultimate result of these studies is the determination of the productivity in terms of the amounts and kinds of aquatic organisms. Limnological studies are of importance to any activity involving the use of bodies of fresh water, such as the management of fisheries, water supply, pollution, sewage treatment, and impoundment. Bodies of water are classified according to their

1. ns f prod tivity Lakes with poo phy i
also d t s for the product n of ga i m and
with t r e i levels are kn wn as l g trophic
lakes. Lakes with excelle t phys c l co dition for
th prod ction f o g i m and with high nutrient
levels are known as eutrophic lakes. Lakes te d t
become m e p o d c t e through the a t i t e s of
L. J. g a n i m p s i g from ligotrophic to eu
trophic types.

Factors influencing productivity The primary
facto n e e r y for th p o d u c t i o n of aquatic or
g a n i m s a r e s n l g h t a d c e r t a n i m o r g a n i a n d o r
g a n i c s u b s t a n c e s d s o l e d i n the water r e c n
t a n e d i n the o c c u r r e d b o t t o m m a t e r i a l. These
s u b s t a n c e s i n c l u d e the d i s s o l d g a s e s m t i m
p o r t a n t o f w h i c h a r e o x y g e n a n d c a r b o n d i o x i d e
a n d a n o d s o l e d s o l i d s s u c h a s c o m p o u n d s
f n i t r o g e n, p h o s p h o r u s a n d o t h e r e l e m e n t s a l l o f
w h i c h h e i n t e r r e l a t e d c h e m i c a l r e a c t i o n s. The
s e c o n d a r y f a c t o r s o f a b o d y o f w a t e r c o n t r o l l i n g the
l o c a t i o n a d l i m i t i n g the p o d u c t i o n o f a q u a t i c l i f e
t h a p e a r e, a s o s d m e n s b o t t o m
t y p e s, t e m p e r a t u r e s c r r i s t r i d i t y a m u n t
a n d d e p t h f l i g h t p e n e t r a t i o a d o t h e r p h y c a l
f a c t o r s.

Food cycles The a q u a t i c r g n i m d e l o p
f r o m t h e s a m e h m i a l n t r i e n t s a s t h o e t h a t u p p o r t
t r e s t r i n g l r g a i m. The b a s i c o r g n i m s a r e
t h e p l a n t s w h o h u e t h e r w n t i e t s b t a c e s
a n d s u p p o r t t h e a n i m a l b y c o m p l i c a t e d f o o d
c h a i n s. D e f i n i t e y l e a s e m e n t e d b e t w e e n the
o r g a n i s m s a d t h e t r i e n t s t h e c h e m i c a l e l e m e n t
b e g o e r t e d i n t l n g o g a n t m s w h i c h d e a d
d e c o m p o s e b a c k i n t o the r g a c n d i g i c u
r e n t s. T h w h i l e p o c e s s i s b e d o t h e p h o t o

s y n t h e t i c a c t i v i t y o f a l l a q u a t i c p l a n t s u t i l i z i n g s o l a r
e n e r g y r e c e i v e d b y r a d i a t i o n a n d i c n t r o l l e d b y
t h e v a r i o u s p h y c a l f a c t o r s. The t r a n s f e r f e n e r g y
c a n b e t r a c e d t h r o u g h t h e a r i u l e v e l s o f the f o o d
c h a i n.

G e n e r a l h a b i t s o f o r g a n i s m s The a q u a t i c r
g a n i m s a r e g r u p e d i n t o a r i o c a t e g o r i e s a c c o r d i n g
t o w h e r e t h e y l i v e. The m o s t o u t s t a n d g r g r p s
a r e the m i c r o p i c p l a n t s a n d a n i m a l h a b i t i n g d e p e n d e d
i n the o p e n w a t e r t h e p l a n k t o n t h e r g a n i m l i g i r o t h e b o t t o m t h b n t l the
l a r g e r f r e s w i m m i g a n m l t h n e k t o n a n d the
r o o t e d p l a n t s o r p o n d w e e d s l i g i t h e h a l l w
w a t e r.

Z o o t o n i a q u a t i c h a b i t s Standing w a t e r a r e
d i v i d e d i n t o z o n e s a c c o r d i n g t o the c o n d i t i o n f o r
l i f e. The l i t t o r a l z o n i s t h e h a l l w a r e l i m i t e d b y
t h e d e p t h o f s u f f i c i e n t l i g h t p e n e t r a t i o n f o r g r o w t h
o f r o o t e d p l a n t s. The l i m n e t i c z o n e t h e p e n w a t e r
t e r b e y n d the l i t t o r a l z o n e d i s i n h a b i t e d b y
p l a n k t o n a n d s o m e n e k t o n. The p r o f a n d z o n e e x i s t s
b e l o w the l i m n e t z o n e i n w a t e r s d e e p e n g h t
t h a t d e v e l o p t e m p e r a t u r e s t r a t i f i c a t i o n w h i c h f o r p a r t
o f the y e a r r e s t r i c t s the l o w e r w a t e r s f r o m c u l
l a t i n g w i t h t h e u p p e r w a t e r. R a n n i g w a t e r s a r e
d i v i d e d m a i n l y i n t o z o n e s c r e a t e d b y d i f f e r e n c e s o f
c u r r e n t a n d b y r e l a t e d b o t t o m t y p e s s w i f t w a t e r
(r a p i d) z o n e s a n d l g g i h w a t e r (p o o l) z o n e s
e a c h w i t h c h a r a c t e r i s t i c r g a n i m s. S e E c o l o g y
F R E S H W A T E R E C O S Y S T E M L A K E M A R I N E E C O S Y S T E M
O C E A N O G R A P H Y P H O T O S Y N T H E S I S [S. E.]

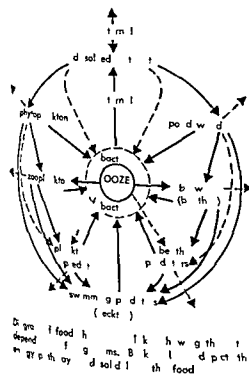
B i b l i o g r a p h y G. E. H u t c h i n s o n A. T. E a t e s o n
L i m n o l o g y v o l 1 1 1 9 5 7 R. L. L a n d e m n S e a s o n 1
f o o d - c y c l e d y n a m i c s a r e s e n t l i k e A m M o d
l d N a t u r a l i s t 2 6 (3) 6 3 6 - 6 7 3 1 9 4 1 F. R u t t n e r
F i s h e r i e s J o u r n a l o f L i m n o l o g y 1 9 5 3 P. S. W e l c h
L i m n o l o g y 2 d e d 1 9 5 2.

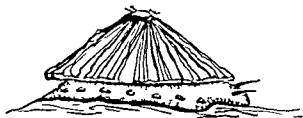
Limonite

A n a t u r a l m o r p h o u s - p p e a r g m a t e r i a l t h a t
t i n g n e p a r t t h e m e t a l l i c k n o w n a s b r o w n i r o n
r e L i m o n i t e o c c u r s i n m i n e r a l s a n d i n s o m e
n a t u r a l m i n e r a l s. The h a r d n e s s i s 5 - 5. 5 (M o h s
c a l) a d t h e s p e c i f i c g r a v i t y i s 3. 6 - 4. 0. The l i t t e r
i s t e o c c u r s i n the c o l d d r k b r w n t o b l a c k
L i m o n i t e s s e t u l l y F e (O H) n H O b o t w i t h
d i m e d h e m a t i t e l a y a d m a g a e s e d e s
X y s a l y s h s h w t h t m c h o f the m a t e r i a l
f o r m e l y t h g h t t h b l i m o n i t e i s g o e t h i t e L i
m o n i t e f o r m e d b y the o d t i o f p e i t i g r n
m i a l s a d o u r w i t h g o e t h i t e. I t s t h p i g m e n t
m e t a m o r p h o u s l y l l w l a d m e d w t h
f i n l a y i n k o w n y l l w c h S G O E T H I T E
I R O N (E X T A C T I O N F R O M O R E) O R E A D M I N I S T R A T I O N
[C. S. H U]

Limpet

A n y f e s e a l s p e c i e s o f the C l a s s G a s t o p o d a
p h y l u m M l l c h a r a c t e r i z e d b y a c c l e t e t
l i k e s h e l l. T w o f m i l e s c e n a l l y r e o g n e z e d
t h e A c m e d e w t h o t n p g t h a p e x o f
t h e h e l l a n d t h F s l l i d w h i c h h a s t h r
m l l p g a t h p e f t h e b e l l o o





The limpet *Patella sp.* length to 2 in

marked by a slit or notch along the margin. The surface of the shell in the latter family is usually strongly ribbed.

Limpets are utilized for food to a limited extent in Europe and to a much lesser degree in the United States. They are also utilized as fish bait and their shells are frequently used as ornaments.

Most limpets are small animals 2 in. or less in length. Except for shell and foot shape they are essentially like other snails in their anatomy (see SNAIL).

Their choice of food is varied as many limpets are highly specific in their diet. Some graze algae from rocks, others eat organic detritus, some feed on a single species of seaweed, and at least one eats only eel grass.

Most limpets have separate sexes and discharge their sperm and eggs into the sea. Some species are known to be functional as males when young but change into females when 2 or 3 years old. Limpets live a surprisingly long time for small invertebrate animals. There is one record of a Japanese species known to live for 17 years; others live at least 10-15 years.

Limpets have a strong homing instinct, spending virtually their entire life at a precise place on a rock, leaving the spot only to feed. The shape of the shell of many limpets conforms to the contour of the spot where they live.

The white cap limpet is a common Pacific Coast form about 1 in. long. The shell has a smooth white surface but it does not have an opening at the apex. The rough key hole limpet, also a common Pacific Coast form, is characteristic of the family Fissurellidae with an opening at the apex of the cone and the shell marked with strong ridges. Its color varies from dark purple to gray brown. The keyhole limpet of the Atlantic Coast is a similar warm water species ranging from Florida southward. It is white to buff in color. Several other species occur along both coasts. See GASTROPODA.

[J. D. R.]

Line

In axiomatic geometry a line frequently is taken as a primitive (undefined) concept; an element in line geometry. A class of points in a geometry with point as element whose essential properties are stated as axioms. In analytic geometry a line is identified with (or is the graph of) a linear equation $Ax + By + C = 0$ with $A, B \neq 0$ in Cartesian coordinates (x, y) . As a derived concept, line is defined in terms of primitive notions such as di-

tance or betweenness. For example, a line L is a set of points in one-to-one correspondence with the set of real numbers such that if points p, q of L correspond to numbers x, y respectively, then distance $(pq) = |x - y|$ or if p, q are point on the line $L(pq)$, the set of points consisting of p, q and all points x such that one of the points p, q, x is between the other two. See ANALYTIC GEOMETRY; GEOMETRY; EUCLIDEAN PLANE; POINT.

[L. M. B. L.]

Line integral

The line integral of a vector function F of position over a path C is

$$\int_C F \cdot dr = \int_C F(x, y, z) \cdot dx + \int_C F_y(x, y, z) \cdot dy + \int_C F_z(x, y, z) \cdot dz$$

where F, F_x, F_y, F_z are the scalar components of F along the coordinate axes. The path C is supposed to be a curve smooth at least in part, defined parametrically by equation of the form

$$x = x(p), \quad y = y(p), \quad z = z(p)$$

for each smooth portion. The function $F(x, y, z)$ etc. must be defined at all points of C . When this is so, the line integral can be evaluated by writing

$$\int_C F \cdot dr = \int_{p_1}^{p_2} F(x(p), y(p), z(p)) \cdot \sqrt{x'(p)^2 + y'(p)^2 + z'(p)^2} \cdot dp$$

where the prime means differentiation with respect to the parameter and p_1, p_2 are values of the parameter at the end points of the path C or of smooth piece. The integral has been converted to an ordinary definite integral.

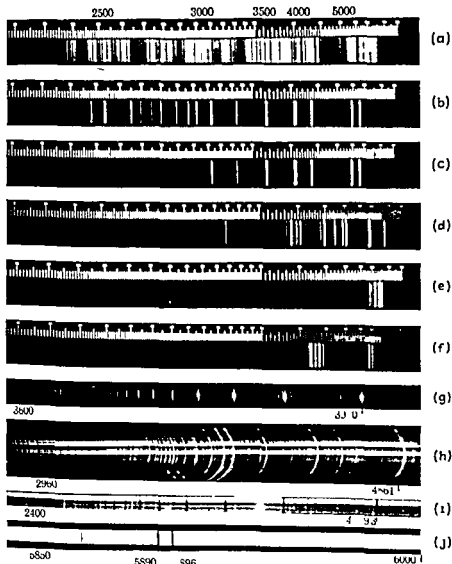
When C is a closed curve, the line integral is called a circuit integral and is written

$$\oint F \cdot dr$$

Some physical applications of the line integral follow. If Γ is a force, the line integral is the work done in moving a mass along the curve C . If Γ is the velocity of flow of a fluid, the line integral is the circulation of the fluid along the curve. If Γ is the electrostatic field strength, the integral is the electric potential difference between the end points of the curve. If Γ is the electric field strength of an electromagnetic field, the circuit integral is the electromotive force of the circuit. In each example, dr is physically a length. See INTEGRATION.

Line spectrum

A discontinuous spectrum characteristic of discrete atomic ion or molecule in the gaseous phase at low pressure. If an electric arc or spark is drawn between metallic electrodes, a weak ultraviolet spectrum is observed. The light source is seen in all characteristic of the metal atom or ion. In order to avoid overlapping of the spectral mag-



Ph tog ph f mm l p ct w l gh f l m h w m k d p m l d d f
 g t m m p t () t (f) l l k l m p Oth t g l d by hy
 rh th sam q rtz p ct g ph () Sp t m f d g d h l m () l b pto p ct m f
 (b) M ry p ct m f m l d d m th lt l t t k with g t g B ght
 ln q rtz () S m f m l d gl (d) l b kg d a th h b
 Hel m agl d h g t b () N i gl l ght t b rpt by d th e
 d ch g tub (f) Ag gl d h g t b l m t (p) S l p ct m i th ghb h od f od m
 (g) Bolm f hydrog th lt l t D l s. Th D l (5890 A d 5896 A) b
 grat g p ct m (h) Em p ct m f m g b d by d m p th h m ph d to
 ch m ph f th S g t g pect m t k g th t t t th fi t m mb f th h w
 h t l t t th t t m m d t l y p d g () (f m F A J k d H E Whi F d
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 th M d k Tw t g st m g H d K l

pect ose p p ded with ry narr w l t
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 cc t lly b t l t f m s f r t f l
 l l ght e—th l t—bec t g es th
 l t c f l p p g m g S
 STRUCT A D CT Sp ct o co y [W F M]

Linear accelerator

A part le eler t r w h a lerat el t n
 p t n hay sin tra ght l e by th c
 t n falt rnat g l t ge l t h ben uc eful
 ele at g l tr n t el c t e ry ea
 that flight F a et ded d us e PAR
 TICLE ACCELERATOR

[W K H F]

Linear energy transfer (biology)

A physical factor which is significant in biology because in many biological actions of high energy radiations linear energy transfer (LET) strongly and characteristically modifies the quantitative relations between dose and effect. See RADIATION BIOLOGY.

When a moving, charged particle (for example an electron or proton) traverses matter it progressively loses kinetic energy which is gained in diverse amounts by individual molecules along its path. The amount of energy thus transferred per unit length of path is the LET. It is roughly proportional at least in gases to ionization per unit path (specific ionization or ion density). LET increases as the particle's velocity decreases accordingly it varies greatly along any individual path and is maximal near the end. Also LET increases as the square of the charge on the particle; for example the LET of an α particle is four times that of an electron or proton of the same instantaneous velocity.

For experimental purposes different values of LET can be obtained in two general ways. In the track segment method a beam is used made up of particles (protons) that have uniform initial velocity and produce substantially straight tracks. The experiment is so arranged that they all traverse a sample of biological objects with the same linear segment of their paths. Different LET values are obtained by using suitably different path segments. In the track average method either entire paths are spent within the biological object or random linear segments of different paths traverse it. Different average values of LET are obtained by using radiations that produce suitably different spectra of LET. Although the average usually used is the arithmetic mean other averages will probably be found to be more meaningful as greater understanding of radiobiological mechanisms is achieved.

In some radiobiological actions the shape of the dose-effect curve is changed as LET is varied. However these cases are rare in comparison with those in which only the slope is changed. In the latter case the effect of LET can be expressed by a single parameter (radiobiological effectiveness RBE) which varies as the slope (or a the reciprocal of the dose in rads required to produce a given degree of effect).

For some radiobiological actions RBE decreases with an increase in LET; this is exemplified by inactivation of macromolecules, viruses and certain bacteria. For other actions RBE increases with LET. In some of these cases RBE has been shown to pass through a maximum; there are theoretical reasons to believe that maxima would be observed for all of them if larger values of LET were experimentally available. See RADIATION MICROBIOLOGY.

The distribution of individual energy transfers along a path corresponds to the distribution of ionized and excited molecules, production of which is believed to initiate the radiobiological mechanism.

Because of diffusion this distribution in space lasts only 1 μ sec or less. Thus the observed variation of RBE with LET demonstrates that some essential part of the radiobiological mechanism is completed in a very short time.

Among other interesting facts are the following: (1) In at least some radiobiological actions the influence of LET is modified by other factors such as concentration of molecular oxygen. (2) Influence of LET is also encountered in radiation chemistry. For instance the decomposition of liquid water depends strongly on LET and this dependence is modified by oxygen. Facts such as these make LET of prime interest in attempts to understand radiobiological mechanisms. See RADIATION RADIATION BIOCHEMISTRY, RADIATION INJURY (BIOLOGY).

[R.E.Z.]
Bibliography: A. Hollaender (ed.), *Radiation Biology* vol. 1, 1954.

Linear programming

A branch of mathematics centered about the finding of the point on a convex polyhedron where a linear function achieves a maximum or minimum. Although such questions have existed in mathematics for over a century, a systematic approach has existed only since World War II.

The principal interest in linear programming is that many business problems can be conveniently described by it (see OPERATIONS RESEARCH). Linear programming is also applicable to problems in physical science, economics and other parts of mathematics.

General theory. A typical linear programming problem is to

$$\text{maximize } c_1x_1 + \dots + c_nx_n$$

where x_1, \dots, x_n satisfy the conditions

$$x_i \geq 0$$

$$a_{11}x_1 + \dots + a_{1n}x_n \leq b_1$$

$$a_{m1}x_1 + \dots + a_{mn}x_n \leq b_m$$

The a_{ij} , c_j and b_i are constants; x_1, \dots, x_n are variables.

Sometimes the problem may be to minimize rather than to maximize; sometimes some of the variables may not be required to be nonnegative; sometimes some of the inequalities $a_{i1}x_1 + \dots + a_{in}x_n \leq b_i$ may be reversed or be equalities.

The linear inequalities which the variables satisfy correspond algebraically to the fact that the variable point $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$ lies in a convex polyhedron. Hence the principal mathematical bases for linear programming are the theory of linear equalities, a part of algebra, and the theory of convex polyhedra, a part of geometry. The most important theoretical foundations are as follows.

If the function $c_1x_1 + \dots + c_nx_n$ does not grow arbitrarily large for points $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$ on the convex polyhedron, then a maximum is attained at a vertex of the polyhedron.

If there is a maximum in the stated problem then there is a minimum in the dual problem of minimum $g = b_1y_1 + \dots + b_m y_m$ where $y_i \geq 0$

$$a_{1j}y_1 + \dots + a_{mj}y_m \geq c_j$$

$$a_{1j}y_1 + \dots + a_{mj}y_m \leq c_j$$

Further the maximum and minimum are the same number. This duality theorem is essentially equivalent to the minimum theorem (see GAUSS THEORY). Both the duality theorem and the minimum theorem are valid for graphs. The geometric fact that if a point is not inside a convex polyhedron then a hyperplane can be found which separates the point from the polyhedron. The duality theorem is closely related to the concept of Lagrange multipliers (see CALCULUS OF VARIATIONS).

Methods of calculation. The most popular method for solving linear programs is the simplex method (see x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) which maximizes $c_1x_1 + \dots + c_nx_n$ is the simplex method developed by George B. Dantzig in 1947. The method is geometrically a process of moving from one vertex to neighboring vertices on the convex polyhedron which move along higher level lines $c_1x_1 + \dots + c_nx_n$ until the vertex yielding the greatest value is reached. Algebraically the calculations are similar to matrix operations for solving systems of algebraic equations. These calculations are easily performed on an electronic computer. The number of iterations and calculations is small.

There has also been developed special methods for calculating the minimum for particular classes of linear programming problems such as the transportation problem (see below).

Applications. Let a_{ij} denote the number of units of nutrient j present in one unit of food i . Let b_j be the minimum amount of nutrient j needed for satisfactory health, b_i be the unit price of food i . Let the variables y_i denote the number of units of food i to be bought. The dual problem is the so-called diet problem: to find a diet consisting of at least one unit of food i in planar graphed polygons in several axes of livestock and poultry. With the different interpretation of the symbols the same form describes the problem of combining raw materials in a chemical process to produce a required product as cheaply as possible.

In the diet problem, let x_i be the number of units of food i to be purchased. Let a_{ij} be the amount of nutrient j in one unit of food i . Let b_j be the minimum amount of nutrient j required. The transportation problem is to find the minimum cost of transporting goods from m sources to n destinations. Thus, if x_{ij} is the amount of goods shipped from source i to destination j , then minimize

$$c_{11}x_{11} + \dots + c_{mn}x_{mn}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{where } x_{11} + \dots + x_{1n} &\leq a_1, & x_{11} &\geq 0, & m \\ \text{and } x_{11} + \dots + x_{m1} &= b_1, & j &= 1, & n \end{aligned}$$

The following are representative of the basic applications of linear programming: several hundred of which have now been reported. The best known applications to the business have been to economic theory and to mathematical analysis. In both instances the duality theorem has been used to illuminate and generalize previous results.

In quadratic programming the objective is the minimization (maximization) of a positive (negative) definite (negative semidefinite) quadratic form over a convex polyhedron (see MATRIX THEORY). Efficient calculation procedures building on the simplex method are known for the quadratic case. In nonlinear programming the function to be minimized or maximized is even more general; the restraints may also be nonlinear and efficient procedures are known only for special cases. [AJIT]

Bibliography: S. I. Gass, *Linear Programming*, McGraw-Hill, 1958.

Linear systems of equations

Systems of mathematical equations of the form

$$\begin{aligned} a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 + \dots + a_{1n}x_n &= b_1 \\ a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 + \dots + a_{2n}x_n &= b_2 \\ &\vdots \\ a_{m1}x_1 + a_{m2}x_2 + \dots + a_{mn}x_n &= b_m \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

where the $a_{ij} = 1, 2, \dots, m, j = 1, 2, \dots, n$ and the $b_i = 1, 2, \dots, m$ are constant or fixed numbers and the $x_i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ are called unknowns. System (1) is referred to as a linear system of equations in n unknowns. A solution of system (1) is a set of numbers c_1, c_2, \dots, c_n such that when x_i is replaced by c_i , x_2 by c_2 , x_3 by c_3 , every equation of system (1) becomes a true equality. The problem posed by such a system of equations is to find criteria for the existence of a solution and when a solution exists, to obtain systematic methods for finding the solution.

An example of such a linear system of equations is

$$\begin{aligned} 2x_1 - x_2 - x_3 + 2x_4 &= 2 \\ x_1 + 3x_2 + 4x_3 - 3x_4 - x_5 &= 4 \\ 3x_1 + 2x_2 + 4x_3 + 2x_4 + 3x_5 &= 2 \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

This system (2) has infinitely many solutions which can be given by the form $x_1 = -c - \frac{1}{2}c + \frac{1}{2}c$, $x_2 = \frac{1}{2}c - \frac{1}{2}c + \frac{1}{2}c$, $x_3 = c$, $x_4 = -\frac{1}{2}c - \frac{1}{2}c$, $x_5 = c$ where c is an arbitrary real number.

Two linear systems of equations are equivalent if every solution of one of the systems is also a solution of the other and vice versa. The system (1) is replaced by an equivalent system for which the solution is then easy to find. The first four equations of system (2) are added together and the result is multiplied by -1 to obtain a new system of equations. By equating each of the new equations to zero, the system (1) can be replaced by a equivalent system of the following form

$$\begin{array}{rcl}
 x_1 + d_1 x_2 + d_1 x_3 + \dots + d_1 x_n & = & e_1 \\
 x_2 + d_2 x_3 + \dots + d_2 x_n & = & e_2 \\
 \vdots & & \vdots \\
 x + d x_n & = & e
 \end{array} \quad (3)$$

$$0 = e_{n+1}$$

$$0 = e_m$$

If $e_1 = e_2 = \dots = e_m = 0$ then the solutions of the system can be obtained by choosing arbitrary values for the unknowns other than

$$x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$$

and solving the equations in turn beginning with the last equation for

$$x_n, x_{n-1}, \dots, x_1$$

When the system has solutions it is said to be consistent. If any one of e_1, e_2, \dots, e_m is not zero then the equations do not have a solution and are inconsistent. In the example (2) the system is equivalent to the system

$$\begin{array}{rcl}
 x_1 + 3x_2 + 4x_3 - 3x_4 - x_5 & = & 4 \\
 x_2 + 8x_3 - 5x_4 - 4x_5 & = & 6 \\
 x_4 + \frac{1}{2}x_5 & = & -2
 \end{array}$$

Arbitrary values c_3 and c_5 can be chosen for x_3 and x_5 respectively and the equations can be solved successively for x_4, x_2 and x_1 .

The operations used in reducing system (1) to system (3) can be most effectively performed on the rows of the matrix of the system

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} & b_1 \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} & b_2 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & a_{mn} & b_m \end{pmatrix} \quad (4)$$

and they are precisely the elementary row transformations of a matrix (see MATRIX THEORY). The matrix (4) is called augmented matrix of the system and the matrix

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & a_{mn} \end{pmatrix} \quad (5)$$

is called the matrix of the coefficients. The rank of a rectangular matrix is defined and the method for determining the rank is given in the article on matrix theory. A necessary and sufficient condition for the existence of a solution of system (1) is that the rank of the augmented matrix (4) be the same as the rank of the matrix of coefficients A . In the example (2) the rank of the augmented matrix

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0 & -1 & 2 & 2 \\ 1 & 3 & 1 & -3 & -1 & 1 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 & 2 & 3 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

as well as the rank of

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0 & -1 & 2 \\ 1 & 3 & 1 & -3 & -1 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 & 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

is equal to 3. Therefore the system is consistent and has the solutions given earlier.

If $m = n$ in system (1) and if the determinant $|A|$ (see DETERMINANT) of the matrix of the coefficients A is not zero then the system (1) has a unique solution which can be obtained by Cramer's rule which gives the values of the unknown x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n as the ratio of two determinants. Specifically Cramer's rule gives

$$\begin{aligned}
 x_1 &= \frac{\begin{vmatrix} b_1 & a_{12} & a_{13} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ b_2 & a_{22} & a_{23} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ b_n & a_{n2} & a_{n3} & \dots & a_{nn} \end{vmatrix}}{|A|} \\
 x_2 &= \frac{\begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & b_1 & a_{13} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & b_2 & a_{23} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & b_n & a_{n3} & \dots & a_{nn} \end{vmatrix}}{|A|} \\
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 \end{aligned}$$

In every case the determinant in the denominator is $|A|$ and for the value of the unknown x_i the determinant in the numerator is the determinant of the matrix obtained from A by replacing the i th column of A by b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n . If $|A| = 0$ in this case of n equations in n unknown the system may either be inconsistent or it may have infinitely many solutions. In the example

$$\begin{array}{rcl}
 x_1 - 4x_2 + 5x_3 & = & 6 \\
 2x_1 - 11x_2 + 10x_3 & = & -1 \\
 4x_1 - x_2 + 5x_3 & = & 0
 \end{array}$$

$$|A| = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & -4 & 5 \\ 2 & -11 & 10 \\ 4 & -1 & 5 \end{vmatrix} = 15$$

and the unique solution is given by

$$\begin{aligned}
 x_1 &= \frac{\begin{vmatrix} 6 & -4 & 5 \\ -1 & -11 & 10 \\ 0 & -1 & 5 \end{vmatrix}}{15} = -2.85, \quad x_2 = -1.83 \\
 x_2 &= \frac{\begin{vmatrix} 1 & 6 & 5 \\ 2 & -1 & 10 \\ 4 & 0 & 5 \end{vmatrix}}{15} = 1.93, \quad x_3 = 1.33 \\
 x_3 &= \frac{\begin{vmatrix} 1 & -4 & 6 \\ 2 & -11 & -1 \\ 4 & -1 & 0 \end{vmatrix}}{15} = 2.67, \quad x_4 = 2.33
 \end{aligned}$$

If in system (1) $b_1 = b_2 = \dots = b_m = 0$ the system is

$$\begin{array}{rcl}
 a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 + \dots + a_{1n}x_n & = & 0 \\
 a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 + \dots + a_{2n}x_n & = & 0 \\
 \vdots & & \vdots \\
 a_{m1}x_1 + a_{m2}x_2 + \dots + a_{mn}x_n & = & 0
 \end{array} \quad (6)$$

$$\begin{array}{rcl}
 x_1 + d_1 + 1x_1 + d_1 + 2x_2 + 2 + & + d_1' x = e_1 \\
 x + d_2 + 1x_1 + 1 + & + d_2' x = e \\
 x + d + 1x_1 + 1 + & + d_n x = e \quad (3) \\
 & 0 = e_{n+1} \\
 & 0 = e_m
 \end{array}$$

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 x_2 &= \frac{\begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & b_1 & a_{13} & a_{14} \\ a_{21} & b_2 & a_{23} & a_{24} \\ a_1 & b & a_3 & a \end{vmatrix}}{|A|} \\
 x &= \frac{\begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & b_1 & a_{14} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & b_2 & a_{24} \\ a_1 & a_2 & a_3 & b \end{vmatrix}}{|A|}
 \end{aligned}$$

In every case the determinant in the denominator is $|A|$ and for the value of the unknown x the determinant in the numerator is the determinant of the matrix obtained from A by replacing the i th column of A by b_1, b_2, \dots, b . If $|A| = 0$ in the case of n equations in n unknowns the system may either be inconsistent or it may have infinitely many solutions. In the example

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 |A| = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & -4 & 5 \\ 2 & -11 & 10 \\ 4 & -1 & 5 \end{vmatrix} & = & 45
 \end{array}$$

and the unique solution is given by

$$\begin{aligned}
 x_1 &= \frac{\begin{vmatrix} 6 & -4 & 5 \\ -1 & -11 & 10 \\ 0 & -1 & 5 \end{vmatrix}}{45} = -\frac{28}{45} = -\frac{19}{15} \\
 x_2 &= \frac{\begin{vmatrix} 1 & 6 & 5 \\ 2 & -1 & 10 \\ 4 & 0 & 5 \end{vmatrix}}{45} = \frac{19}{45} = \frac{19}{45} \\
 x_3 &= \frac{\begin{vmatrix} 1 & -4 & 6 \\ 2 & -11 & -1 \\ 4 & -1 & 0 \end{vmatrix}}{45} = \frac{28}{45} = \frac{28}{45}
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 a_{m1}x_1 + a_{m2}x_2 + & + a_{mn}x_n & = 0
 \end{array} \quad (6)$$

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Linen

A widely used cloth made from flax fibers. Linen is noted for its evenness of thread fineness and density. Its uses include garments, tablecloths, sheeting, towel, and thread.

The flax plant which supplies the fiber needs a short cool growing season with plenty of rainfall (see FLAX). The U.S.R. leads the world in growing flax for fiber. The manufacture of the fiber into fabric requires unusual care throughout each process in order to retain the strength and beauty of the fiber.

Processing the fiber. Seeds and leaves are removed from the stems of the flax plant by passing the stalks through coarse combs, a process called rippling. Bundles of stems weighted down with heavy stones to ensure complete immersion are then steeped in water. The wetting allows the tissue or woody bark surrounding the hairlike flax fibers to decompose, thus loosening the gum that binds the fibers together. This decomposing or fermentation is called retting.

After removal from water the stems may be spread out on the ground for a week or more. After the woody tissue has become dry, it is crushed by fluted iron rollers. After this breaking operation there remain only small pieces of bark called shives. The shives are removed by means of rotating wooden paddles, thus finally releasing the flax fibers. This operation can be done either by hand or with machinery. The simple combing process known as hackling straightens the flax fibers, separates the short from the long staple, and leaves the longer fibers in parallel formation. For very fine linen hackling is usually done by hand and is repeated, a finer comb being used with each hackling treatment. Coarse linen is hackled by machine.

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Lines of force

Imaginary lines in fields of force whose tangent at any point give the direction of the field at that point and whose number through unit area perpendicular to the field represents the intensity of the field. The concept of lines of force is perhaps most common when dealing with electric or magnetic fields.

Electric lines of force. These are lines drawn to represent or map an electric field graphically in the space around a charged body. They are of great help in visualizing an electric field and in quantitative thinking about such a field. The direction of an electric line of force at any point is drawn parallel to the direction of the electric field intensity E at that point. The quantitative convention is that the number of electric lines of force drawn through an imaginary unit area of surface perpendicular to the field shall be numerically equal to E at that area. From this quantitative convention and using the rationalized mks system of units, q/ϵ_0 lines of force originate on a positive charge q (in coulombs) and a like number terminate on a negative charge q of the same magnitude. Here $\epsilon_0 = 8.85 \times 10^{-12}$ coul²/newton m² is the permittivity of empty space. See ELECTRIC FIELD.

Magnetic lines of force. A magnetic field of strength H may also be represented by lines called lines of force. The number of lines of force per unit area of a surface perpendicular to H is numerically equal to the value of H . The lines of magnetic force due to currents are closed curves, as are the lines of magnetic induction. Magnetic lines of force due to magnets originate on north poles and terminate on south poles, both inside and outside the magnet. See MAGNETIC FIELD. [RFT]

Bibliography. R. P. Winch, *Electricity and Magnetism* 1955.

Link

An element of a mechanical linkage. A link may be a straight bar, a disk, or it may have any other shape, simple or complex. It is assumed for simple analysis to be made of unyielding material—that is, its shape does not change. A link is capable of turning about an instant center. The frame or fixed member of a linkage is one of the links, whether the frame is fixed relative to the earth or fixed relative to a movable body such as the chassis of an automobile. By this definition, auxiliary members of mechanisms such as belts, springs, and other flexible connectors and liquid columns in hydraulic systems are not links. [ESF]

Linkage genetic

The presence of numerous pairs of genes in the same chromosome or homologous pair of chromosomes. Two or more gene differences do not segregate independently into separate cell nuclei when they are located in homologous chromosome. They remain in their original combinations unless a mutual exchange of equivalent chromosomes takes

not occur between the homologous points in a process as crossing over. See RECOMBINATION GENETICS SEXUAL INHERITANCE. [DDP]

Linkage mechanism

A set of rigid bodies, called links, joined together to produce a mechanism. A link is considered to be rigid if its physical properties do not change. Linkages are used to transmit power and motion. They may be employed to make a link follow a prescribed curve. Reproduction of the input motion to the linkage. They are used to produce a angular or linear displacement. Here $f(\theta)$ is a function of θ .

If the links are bars, they are termed a bar linkage. In first approximation, a bar may be treated as a straight line segment. A portion of a curve, and a pivot may be treated as a common point on the bars connected at the point A. In a four-bar linkage, then one for which the bars are restricted to a given plane such as a four-bar linkage (Fig 1). A body pivoted to a fixed base and to one or more other links is a crank. A crank 4 in Fig 1 rotates, link 2 (also crank) oscillates back and forth. The four-bar linkage thus transforms a rotary motion into a oscillatory or vice versa. Link AB marked 1 in Fig 2 may be replaced by a slider 5 (Fig 2). As end D of crank 4 rotates, point C describes the same curve as before. The slider moves in a fixed groove.

A commonly occurring situation of the four-bar linkage is the linkage used in reciprocating engines (Fig 3). Slider C is the piston in a cylinder; the connecting rod is link 4; the crank is link 3. This mechanism transforms a line into circular motion or vice versa. The straight slider 1 with the crank enters is equivalent to pivot at the end of an infinitely long link. Let R be the length of the crank, L the length of the connecting rod while θ and ϕ denote the angles of the crank and rod (Fig 3). Let x denote the coordinate of the pivot C measured so that $x = 0$ when $\theta = 0$. Length L normally denotes radius R when the full weight approximates relationship

$$x = R(1 - \cos \theta) + \frac{R^2}{2L} \sin^2 \theta \quad (1)$$

A Scotch yoke is employed to convert steady rotary into simple harmonic motion (Fig 4). The angle of the crank 2 with respect to the horizontal is denoted by θ and the coordinate of the slider 4 by x . If R again denotes the length of the crank, the following holds

$$x = R \cos \theta \quad (2)$$

In computing the mechanism slide 3 can be considered as the crank, the pivot point of a connecting rod mechanically.

A lever is normally understood to be a bar connected to the other link. A lever is often used for displacement (Fig 5). Point B is the center of the lever AC. It is the distance from the fulcrum to the point of application of the force, the length of the lever

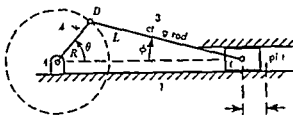


Fig 3 Slider-crank mechanism

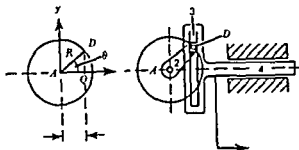


Fig 4 Scotch yoke

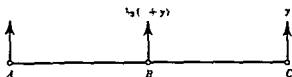


Fig 5 Additively combined

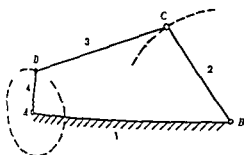


Fig 1 Four-bar linkage

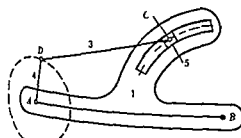


Fig 2 Equivalent four-bar linkage

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Link

An element of a mechanical linkage. A link may be a straight bar, a disk, or it may have any other shape, simple or complex. It is assumed for simple analysis to be made of unyielding material—that is, its shape does not change. A link is capable of turning about an instant center. The frame or fixed member of a linkage is one of the links, whether the frame is fixed relative to the earth or fixed relative to a movable body such as the chassis of an automobile. By this definition auxiliary members of mechanisms such as belts, springs, and other flexible connectors and liquid columns in hydraulic systems are not links. [ESF]

Linkage genetic

The presence of numerous pairs of genes in the same chromosome or homologous pair of chromosomes. Two or more gene differences do not segregate independently into separate cell nuclei when they are located in homologous chromosomes. They remain in their original combinations unless a mutual exchange of equivalent chromosomal seg-

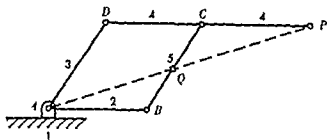


Fig 6 Pantograph

Lever with a fixed pivot (fulcrum) are particularly useful for amplifying or attenuating linear displacements and forces.

The pantograph shown in Fig 6 is a five link mechanism employed in drafting to magnify or reduce diagrams. As point Q on link 5 describes a curve, point P on link 4 will describe a similar but enlarged curve. Here ABCD is a parallelogram. Pivot A is fixed.

A mechanism composed of six links introduced by Joseph Whitworth (1803-1887) makes the return stroke of a body in oscillatory linear motion faster than the forward stroke. Universal joints for transmitting motion between intersecting axes and couplings permitting rotation about an axis in one direction only are examples of the many kinds of linkages used in machines. However, complicated linkages are becoming obsolete because of the ease with which information and power can be transmitted by electrical, hydraulic and pneumatic means. [R 0]

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Linoleum

A floor covering made by applying a mixture of gelled linseed oil, pigments, fillers and other materials to a burlap backing and curing to produce a hard resilient sheet. The surface may be further decorated by printed patterns. The term is also applied, although incorrectly, to similar resilient floor coverings made of other resins or related materials. See DRYING OIL. [F 50]

Linseed oil

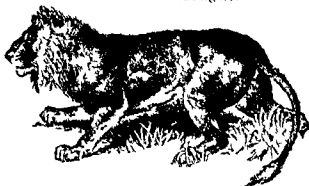
A product made from the seed of the flax plant (*Linum usitatissimum*) by crushing and pressing them, either with or without heat. After the linseed oil is extracted, it is formulated either raw or boiled in various grades and with various drying agents such as litharge, minium and zinc sulfate. Its most common uses are as the vehicle in oil paints and as a component of oil varnishes after a longer period of boiling and other preparation as a printing and lithographic ink base. In the manufacture of oilskin raincoats, oilcloth and linoleum and in some soaps. Oil cake, the residue of the crushed seeds, is a protein-rich material used for cattle feed. Most linseed raised for oil comes from Argentina, Russia and India, with lesser

quantities from the north central United States and Canada. It was first used as a drying oil in the twelfth century with the introduction of oil painting. See DRYING OIL, FLAT SURFACE COATING.

[C 60]

Lion

A large carnivore *Felis leo* of the family Felidae now limited to southern and central Africa. At one time it was found over much of Asia and southern Europe. The male lion may attain a weight of 600 lb and a length of 11 ft including the tail. Females are somewhat shorter and much lighter.



The African lion *Felis leo* weighs to 8 ft (From P M Du con d Cassell's Natural History Cassell 1883)

Because of relentless hunting, lions are constantly being reduced in numbers and are losing territory. They live in groups called prides and show a degree of cooperation in the securing of food and rearing of the young not practiced by other cats. Most of the work of securing food for the pride is done by the female. Lions are greatly harassed by a host of smaller animals that try to steal part of the kill when the lion have succeeded in the hunt. See CARNIVORA. [J 60]

Lip

A fleshy fold above and below the entrance to the mouth of mammals. Even the lower vertebrate with movable jaws such as the amphibian and most reptiles have fold of skin external to the jaws and teeth. The external covered superficially with epithelium are usually soft and supported internally by connective tissue. In contrast in turtles, birds and the lower mammal (monotremes) the epithelium is cornified and hard so as to form a beak or bill. Nevertheless, only the typical mammal (marsupial and placental mammal) possesses a highly developed type of true lip. The are separated by deep cleft from the jaw and are made mobile by containing muscle fibers in the facial group. The separating left and right constitutes the vestibule of the mouth. The increased size and mobility of the lip of mammals are adapted to such functions as sucking, drinking, grasping food and holding it against the teeth. The opening into the mouth is expanded or retracted at will. The lip of man are fitted to important use in producing articulate speech and the various facial expressions.

and carbohydrate and glycolipids which contain phosphorus. Those lipids not included in the above groupings are of the chemically simpler type and include the fatty acids, alcohols, ethers such as batyl and chimyl alcohols, and hydrocarbons such as the terpenes and carotenes.

The fatty acids found in lipids may be saturated or unsaturated, cyclic or acyclic and contain substituent such as hydroxyl or keto groups. They are combined in ester or amide linkage.

The alcohols likewise may be saturated or unsaturated and are combined in ester or ether linkages. In the case of $\alpha\beta$ unsaturated ethers, these are best considered as aldehyde derivatives.

The amino alcohols found in lipids are linked as amides, glycosides or phosphate esters. Sphingosine is the amino alcohol found in animal tissues and phytosphingosine is its equivalent in the plant kingdom. One long chain diamine (necrosamine) has been isolated from the lipids of the bacterium *Escherichia coli*.

Occurrence Lipids are present in all living cells but the proportion varies from tissue to tissue. The triglycerides accumulate in certain areas such as adipose tissue in the human being and in the seeds of plants where they represent a form of energy storage. The more complex lipids appear to be more nearly structural elements and occur in the membranes of cells and of special bodies within the cells. More active tissues generally have a higher complex lipid content; for example, the brain, liver, kidney, lung, and blood contain the highest concentration of phosphatides in the mammal. Fish oils are important sources of vitamins A and D, and seed germ oils contain quantities of vitamin E. The vitamins K occur chiefly in plants and microorganisms and carotenoids are widely distributed in both the plant and animal kingdoms. Waxes are found in insects and as protective agents on plant leaves and the cuticles of fruits and vegetables (for instance, the bloom on grapes and plums). Soybeans are used for the commercial preparation of phosphatides.

Extraction Many of the lipids, particularly glycolipids, phosphatides and steroid esters, are present in the tissue in association with other cell components such as protein. The nature of the linkages in these complexes is not fully understood although they are most certainly not covalent. Combinations of lipid and protein like lipoproteins and proteolipids have been isolated from sources such as blood serum and egg yolk. For the efficient extraction of lipids from tissues these complexes must first be disrupted and this is usually accomplished by dehydration procedures such as freeze drying or acetone extraction or by denaturation with alcohol before extracting the tissue with suitable lipid solvents. The use of mixed solvents such as ethanol and ether, ethanol and benzene or chloroform and methanol allow disruption, dehydration and extraction in one operation. Partial fractionation of lipid may be effected by successive extractions with different solvents.

Separation The difficulties involved in the separation of lipids have held back progress toward their chemical identification. Prior to 1948, solvent fractionations or the use of specific complexing agents such as cadmium chloride for the separation of lecithin were the only methods available. Since then the use of column chromatography, particularly on alumina and silicic acid, counter-current distribution and ion exchange resins has allowed far more rapid progress in separation and also has led to the discovery of previously undescribed lipids. Other methods which allow elective degradation of certain lipids either chemically (for example, the use of dilute alkali to cause preferential hydrolysis of esters) or enzymatically are also being used successfully for the separation of certain lipids. See CHROMATOGRAPHY.

Identification Most of the conventional analytical procedures are used in the identification of lipid samples. Physical methods such as infrared and ultraviolet spectroscopy, optical rotation and proton magnetic resonance studies have been used. Gas phase chromatography is playing an important part in the identification of fatty acids. Particularly useful are paper chromatography, both reversed phase and silicic acid impregnated, qualitative and quantitative methods for the determination of esters, aldehydes, carbohydrate, long chain bases and the other important components of lipids such as glycerol, glycerophosphate, ethanolamine, choline, serine, amino sugars and inositol and elementary analyses for nitrogen and phosphorus. The nitrogen to phosphorus ratio of a phosphatide sample has long been used as a criterion of purity because carbon and hydrogen analyses on a single phosphatide species are not highly revealing owing to the spectrum of fatty acids that may be present. The degree of unsaturation is determined by hydrogenation or iodine number determination and free hydroxyl groups are expressed by the acetyl value. Lipid samples also may be hydrolyzed under a variety of acid or alkaline conditions and the products investigated by paper chromatography. See CARBOXYLIC ACID, FAT AND OIL, EDIBLE FAT AND OIL, NONEDIBLE GLYCOLIPID, LIPID METABOLISM, PHOSPHATIDE, SPHINGOLIPID, STEROID, TERPENE, TRIGLYCERIDE, VITAMIN, WAX, ANIMAL AND VEGETABLE.

[HFC:RUC]

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Lipid metabolism

Lipids are compounds known as fat, wax, phospholipid, glycolipid and sterols. The lipid is the most concentrated source of energy for living organisms, yielding more than twice as much en-

per gram as carbohydrate or protein. They provide the food remains in the stomach and thus delay the onset of hunger. Lipids also provide the essential fatty acids such as linoleic and linolenic acids and arachidonic acid, which the fat-soluble vitamins (A, D, E, and K) enter the body. The body stores fat as stored fat in the adipose tissue and fat in the blood. As a source of energy, fat is stored in the adipose tissue and is used for heat. The storage of fat is essential for the utilization and synthesis of lipids in the normal process of digestion and absorption. The digestion process in the intestine renders fat water-soluble in the form of absorption through the wall of the intestine and lymph channels.

Fat digestion and absorption. The digestion process in the intestine renders fat water-soluble in the form of absorption through the wall of the intestine and lymph channels.

Fat digestion. Little fat digestion occurs in the stomach except in infants. In the intestine, the bile salts and pancreatic enzymes and secretions from the intestine (the succenteric) release the agnates of the digested fat. The bile is formed by the liver and collects in the gallbladder. From the intestine, it is discharged from the gallbladder into the intestine and mixes with the food. The bile contains pigments, two bile acids, taurocholic and glycocholic. The detergent which attacks the digested fat is water-soluble. When the acid content of the stomach is discharged into the duodenum (the first portion of the intestine), a normal secretory discharge is regulated by the duodenum into the blood. The fat is then passed to the secretory pancreatic juice. The pancreatic lipase enzyme, which digests protein and a hydrolytic enzyme, lipase, which hydrolyzes the digested fat, forms glycerol and free fatty acids. These act as a substrate for the succenteric. The pancreatic juice is then absorbed into the intestinal mucosa and mixed with the food and digested in the form of bile.

Fat absorption. The digested material is hydrolyzed into glycerol and free fatty acids. The glycerol is absorbed into the lymphatic system, while the free fatty acids are absorbed into the blood. The free fatty acids are absorbed into the blood by the intestinal mucosa and are then transported to the liver. The liver then processes the free fatty acids into triglycerides, which are then transported to the adipose tissue for storage. The free fatty acids are also used for energy production in the mitochondria.

Starch. Fat digestion of starch is delayed in the stomach and is completed in the small intestine.

unusually amount of fatty material in the stool. This condition is termed steatorrhea.

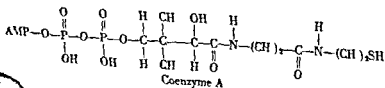
Lipids in the blood. Fatty acids are recognized (1) triglycerides, combination of fatty acid with glycerol, (2) nesterified fatty acid (NFFA), fatty acids combined with glycerol, which have recently received attention particularly because of their presence in diabetes, (3) cholesterol, a complex steroid compound which is concentrated in the blood has significance in hypertension, (4) phosphatides, combination of fatty acid with phosphates and lecithin. Fat in the blood exists in the form of small droplets called chylomicrons. Lipemia means an excess of lipid in the blood or the normal serum phosphatide sterol.

Turnover of body lipids. Fat in the body depot have a very active metabolism. They are continually being degraded and used up. The fatty acids can synthesize new fat from carbohydrate and other substrate materials. In the steady state when total body fat is constant, the rate at which fat is oxidized and resynthesized is called the turnover rate. It can be measured by using isotopes for example, in a water. The average turnover is about 10% of the total body fat per day.

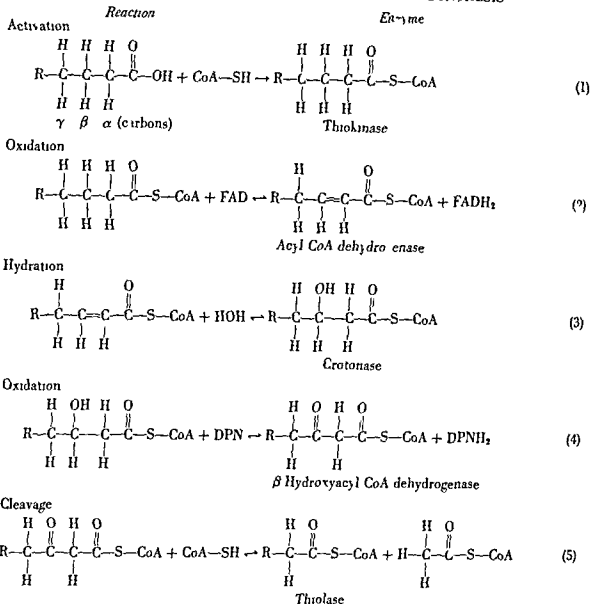
Adipose tissue. Collections of tissue composed mainly of fat are called adipocytes. In addition to fat, they also contain protein and other substances. The main sites of adipocytes are (1) beneath the skin, (2) around the kidneys and other organs, and (3) in the supportive structures of the intestines, the omentum, mesentery, etc. It is generally believed that adipocytes were not biologically inactive but recent work has shown that they are sensitive to more active stimuli. Most single types of tissue. For example, they synthesize fat readily from carbohydrate and other substrate material. In addition, they respond to hormones such as insulin and growth hormone in some cases more than the tissue changes the liver or muscle. This metabolic activity is related to the protein of adipocytes rather than the fat itself.

Oxidation and synthesis. The body is able to oxidize fatty acids for purposes of energy production. In addition, it can synthesize new fatty acids from precursors derived from carbohydrate or protein. This biosynthesis is called lipogenesis. Fatty acid metabolism has been the subject of extensive research and is a major area of study in biochemistry.

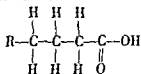
Oxidation of high fatty acid. The complete oxidation of fatty acids involves a series of steps. The first step is the activation of the fatty acid by coenzyme A (CoA), which forms a complex called acyl-CoA. This complex then enters the mitochondria, where it is oxidized to produce energy.



CURRENT CONCEPT OF FATTY ACID OXIDATION AND SYNTHESIS



There are five reactions concerned in the oxidation of higher fatty acids. Each requires a special enzyme, and two of the reactions require cofactors as oxidizing agents which accept the hydrogens from the fatty acids. In reaction (1) activation the fatty acid is written as

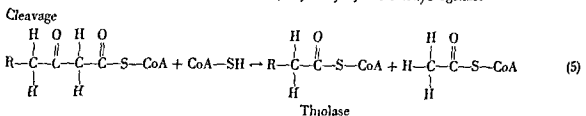
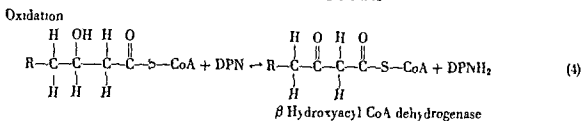
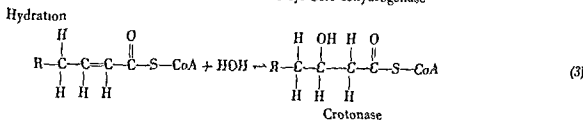
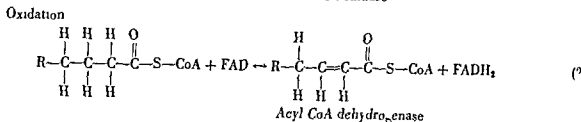
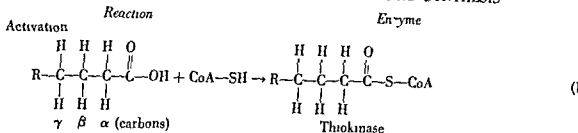


in which only the terminal four carbon atoms are given. R represents a chain of carbon atoms up to 14 in number. The initial reaction consists of activation by combination of the carboxyl group of the fatty acid with coenzyme A, yielding an acyl coenzyme A. The enzyme is called the activating enzyme or thiokinase. In reaction (2) first oxidation two hydrogen atoms each are removed from the α and β carbons with the production of an unsaturated fatty acid analogous to crotonic acid. The enzyme is called acyl CoA dehydrogenase and the cofactor which acts as the oxidizing agent is

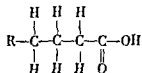
flavin adenine dinucleotide (FAD). In reaction (3) hydration, hydrogen and the hydroxyl group (from water) are introduced at the α and β carbons respectively. A β hydroxy acid is formed; the enzyme is crotonase. In reaction (4) second oxidation two hydrogens are removed from the α and β carbons of the β hydroxy acid to form a keto acid. The oxidizing agent is diphosphopyridine nucleotide (DPN). In reaction (5) cleavage, acetyl CoA is split off. Thus a fatty acid two carbons shorter than the original one is formed. Simultaneously the shortened fatty acid combines with another molecule of CoA at the newly formed carboxyl group to yield a new activated fatty acid. The enzyme is β ketothiolase. The new activated fatty acid undergoes the same series of reactions, and this process is repeated until the entire fatty acid molecule has been reduced completely to an acetyl CoA. The fate of the acetyl CoA molecules will be discussed below. See DIPHOSPHOPYRIDINE NUCLEOTIDE (DPN).

The interrelation of oxidation and breakdown of fatty acids and synthesis is shown in the diagram.

CURRENT CONCEPT OF FATTY ACID OXIDATION AND SYNTHESIS



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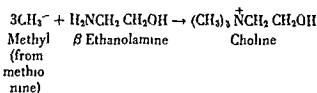


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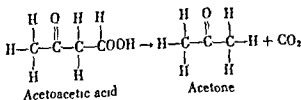
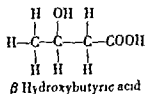
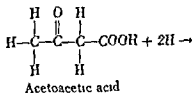
The interrelation of oxidation and breakdown of fatty acids and synthesis is shown in the diagram.

nonesterified fatty acids (NEFA) Fatty acids are also transported in the blood stream combined with phosphatides It is possible that the process of mobilization of fatty acids from depots may be under hormonal control A hormone adipokinin originating in the pituitary gland is stated to be this fat mobilizing hormone Under certain circumstances an excessive amount of fat is mobilized from the fat depots and transported for deposition in the liver Inadequate control of diabetes is one such circumstance The feeding of certain substances such as choline prevents this accumulation of fat in the liver Such a substance is called a lipotropic agent If the diet is deficient in choline the animal develops a fatty liver Methionine is also a lipotropic agent and when it is fed prevents the accumulation of fat in the liver It has been shown that methionine transfers its methyl group to β ethanolamine to form choline The reaction is



This process is called transmethylation

Degradation of fatty acids Liver muscles and other tissues can break down the fatty acid portions of fats to smaller molecules This process of oxidation is called β oxidation because the second or β carbon counting from the carboxyl group is oxidized As a result the fatty acid chain is shortened by two carbons forming acetyl CoA In the muscles and other organs acetyl CoA is further oxidized by the Krebs cycle as already described but in the liver under certain circumstances all the acetyl CoA formed is not oxidized Instead two molecules of acetyl CoA may form acetoacetic acid which cannot be further oxidized by the liver Acetoacetic acid is transformed into β hydroxybutyric acid or acetone according to the following reaction



These three compounds are called the ketone bodies They are formed only in the liver Under certain circumstances such as starvation or diabetes these acid derivatives of fat are formed in excessive amounts in the liver and accumulating in the blood give rise to a condition known as ketosis or ketoacidosis The excessive formation of ketone bodies leads to a high concentration of them in the blood a condition called ketonemia In addition excess ketone bodies are excreted in the urine leading to ketonuria Such ketoacidosis in the patient if allowed to continue unchecked results in his death Before the advent of insulin such fatal acidosis in diabetics was quite common It is to be noted that the muscles are capable of oxidizing the ketone bodies and deriving the major portion if not all of their energy therefrom in starvation of diabetic ketosis However in the uncontrolled diabetic subject the formation of ketone bodies may greatly exceed the utilization of them by the muscle or other tissues so that fatal ketosis results The excessive ketone formation in the diabetic is due primarily to an inability of the diabetic to synthesize fatty acids from carbohydrates or other sources This failure of lipid synthesis is believed to be basically due to the inability of the liver to metabolize carbohydrate in a normal way Oxidative formation of fatty acids to ketone body exceeds fatty acid synthesis ketosis therefore results

Uncontrolled ketosis in the diabetic patient brings about abnormal acidity of the blood dehydration due to excessive loss of fluid and loss of sodium In consequence the patient lapses into coma

Role of the phosphatides The phosphatides are compounds of phosphate and certain bases containing nitrogen namely ethanolamine serine and choline the so called phosphatide base When combined with fatty acids they tend to make the insoluble fatty acids soluble in water They also tend to congregate at membrane surfaces and so are found in higher concentrations at the surface of cells They are not found combined with fat in the depot but can combine with the lipids of the blood and of the liver

Obesity The daily energy requirements of the body are met by the caloric yield of the food intake If more food is ingested than is required for energy demands the excess is converted into fat and deposited in the fat depots Long continued ingestion of food beyond the caloric requirements leads to the excess deposition of fat or obesity There are some physiologists who believe that obesity is due solely to overeating but others believe that certain individuals have a type of metabolism which leads to fat deposition even when the caloric intake is relatively small

Cachexia In certain conditions such as chronic infectious diseases cancerous or other malignant growth diabetes hyperthyroidism an excessive loss of fat may occur leading to emaciation and diminished fat stores in the body Such an extreme

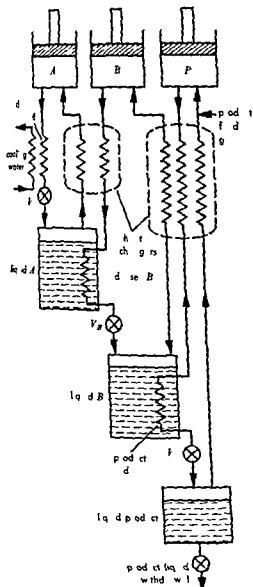


Fig 3 Gas liquefaction by differential pressure

the high gas density is a property of the gas, and is a function of the temperature and pressure. The gas is cooled and compressed in the heat exchanger, and then expanded in the expander. The gas is then cooled and compressed in the heat exchanger, and then expanded in the expander. The gas is then cooled and compressed in the heat exchanger, and then expanded in the expander.

reversible expansion of a gas from a high to a low pressure can be approximated with either a piston or turbine-type expander. The former has been the more widely used, the latter although the more efficient handles much larger volumes of gas in proportion to the size of the development and actual use has depended upon the need for large production facilities for liquefied gases. In addition widespread usage of both types of expanders has been retarded until recently by lack of suitable method of lubrication for moving parts and bearings at very low temperature. I should mention in the high thermal efficiency inherent in this type of cycle heat generation by friction in these expanders is minimized because all temperature increase is produced by a gain in enthalpy rather than usually appreciably larger at low temperatures than at high.

The simplest type of refrigerating machine employing the above principle is the gas refrigerator shown in Fig 4. In an actual machine of the type shown expansion is at a pressure of 40 to 1 atm pressure with the gas temperature at the expander inlet between 200 K and results in an exit temperature of about 100 K. In principle this refrigerating machine would also serve as a liquefier for the working fluid. If the expander were adiabatically cooled to the temperature would fall progressively with continued operation and eventually the gas would liquefy in the expander itself. Such a process is highly inefficient however because the liquid formed with the walls of the cylinder or tubing. This facilitates the flow of the hot cylinder wall to the working fluid and introduces a delay in the transfer of heat into the cycle. In addition the formation of liquid in the expander usually introduces a mechanical instability. Hence a practical expander is usually designed to produce the low temperature required for liquefaction. The process

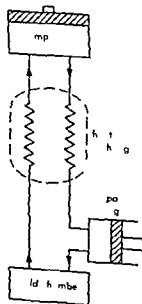


Fig 4 Schmidt fluid gas refrigerator

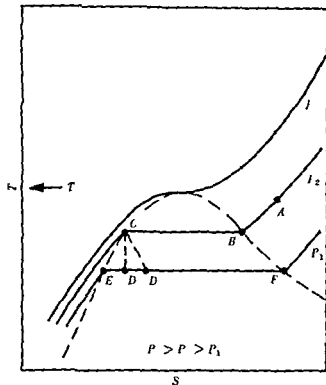


Fig 2 Temperature-entropy ($T-S$) diagram for a typical gas

compressibility of the liquid. Assuming the critical temperature of a gas to lie above ambient, liquefaction of a gas by vapor compression consists simply of compressing it isothermally until it liquefies.

A procedure whereby a liquefied gas at a temperature below ambient can be produced using a vapor compression process is best described with the help of a temperature-entropy diagram for a gas. In Fig. 2 the decrease in entropy S with temperature T for a gas held at constant pressure is shown by the various curves labeled P_1 , P , and P (see ENTHALPY). At some temperature less than T for every pressure less than P (for example point B) liquid will begin to form at constant temperature with further decrease in volume and continued withdrawal of heat from the gas. Let it now be assumed that the vapor has been entirely compressed to a liquid (path $A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C$ in Figure 2). If at point C the confining pressure that is the vapor pressure on the compressed liquid is in excess of atmospheric pressure, the liquid can be isolated thermally from its surroundings and the confining pressure slowly reduced. The liquid will then boil but due to its thermal isolation the heat of vaporization can be supplied only by the sensible heat of the liquid itself. The whole liquid is therefore cooled at the expense of vaporizing a part of it. On the $T-S$ diagram (Fig. 2) this result is illustrated by the path $C \rightarrow D$, as during the pressure reduction is carried out slowly and hence quasi-reversibly. For such an isentropic expansion this diagram provides a direct determination of the remaining amount of liquid. The fraction of gas produced is given by the length ratio FD/EF (that for the liquid is DF/EF). In practice the expansion of the compressed liquid is carried out irreversibly

through a valve. Under the conditions a larger fraction of liquid is evaporated as shown by the path $C \rightarrow D$.

When refrigeration is the objective of the process outlined above (which is frequently the case) the gas formed in the throttling stage as well as that originating from evaporation of the cold liquid is returned to the compressor intake and the cycle just described is repeated. By balancing liquid evaporation due to heat leak with liquid production by expansion, steady conditions can be achieved in the low temperature reservoir. Refrigerators of this type are useful in the liquefaction of still other gases. If the cold liquid produced is withdrawn as product and used elsewhere a liquefaction rather than a refrigeration cycle is the result. Make-up gas in an amount equivalent to that liquefied must then be continuously introduced to the cycle at the compressor intake.

Refrigeration. When the critical point of a gas lies below ambient temperature, a refrigerator can always be used to cool the gas sufficiently to liquefy it by the vapor compression process described above. Refrigerators are also employed to precool the feed gas in other liquefaction cycles producing thereby a more nearly reversible and hence more efficient process. Because not only different gases but also many types of refrigerators exist, the particular one chosen for any given application always requires a careful matching of process requirements to refrigerator characteristics. In this section therefore it will be possible only to outline the basic aspects of gas liquefaction using refrigerators.

In any refrigerating machine with gas stream flowing from high to low temperature region and conversely it is necessary to prevent the circulating gases from transporting heat energy thus introducing large and undesirable heat leak into the cycle. By using a device called a heat exchanger, heat energy can be transferred across the medium separating the gas stream in such a way that the warm stream is cooled and the cold stream warmed over essentially the same temperature interval while ideally no heat energy flows along the temperature gradient of the exchanger. A simple heat exchanger consists of two concentric copper tubes through which countercurrent gas streams flow with heat being transferred across the copper surface adjacent to both streams.

A particularly simple refrigerator is a continuously replenished bath of a liquefied gas boiling under reduced pressure and hence at a lower temperature than ambient, a device called in the previous section. By using a series of the bath each boiling at a lower temperature and each acting in turn as a condenser for the one with the next lower boiling point, a cascade-type liquefier may be assembled as illustrated in Fig. 3. **SEMIREFRIGERATION**

Performance of external work. The maximum possible cooling effect resultant from any spontaneous change in the state of a substance of total

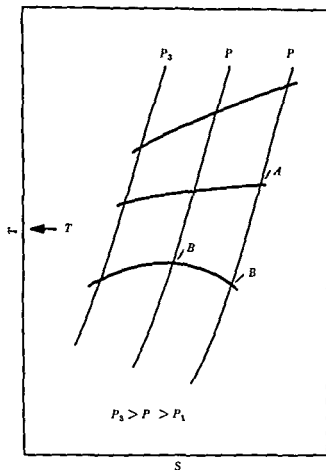


Fig 5 Temperature-entropy diagram for a gas (high temperature region)

duction of the actual liquid is always carried out either by vapor compression or the Joule Thomson process. Discussion of the latter is reserved until after the next section, but an application of the principles developed so far is illustrated by the A. D. Little hydrogen liquefier. In this compact device the working substance, helium gas, circulates through two reciprocating expansion engines operating at two different temperature levels. The exit temperature from the lower temperature engine is maintained at approximately the boiling point of hydrogen. The hydrogen gas to be liquefied is cooled by passing it through a heat exchanger counter to the expanded cold helium until its temperature is reduced sufficiently to permit liquefaction by vapor compression.

Joule Thomson expansion. Under certain conditions an irreversible adiabatic expansion of a gas (or a liquid) through a throttling device such as a valve can result in a decrease in temperature of the effluent gas. A thermodynamic analysis shows that in this process, called a Joule Thomson expansion, the heat content or enthalpy of the gas is unchanged. If the temperature at which the expansion is carried out is above a particular temperature for each gas, the gas effluent from the throttle valve will be warmer than that at the valve inlet; below this temperature, called the inversion temperature, expansion will result in a cooling of the gas. In order to use this cooling effect in gas liquefaction, the expansion temperature must always be below

the inversion temperature. The list shows the in

| Gas | T_i , $^{\circ}\text{K}$ |
|----------|----------------------------|
| Helium | 51 |
| Hydrogen | 205 |
| Neon | 242 |
| Nitrogen | 621 |
| Argon | 723 |
| Oxygen | 893 |

version temperatures of a number of common gases from which it will be noted that neon, the hydrogen isotopes, and the helium isotopes are the only gases not below their inversion points at ordinary temperatures. Precooling before expansion is necessary only with the other three gases in order to obtain refrigeration from the Joule Thomson process. In Fig 5, a simplified T - S plot of a typical gas is presented. On it is shown the variation of S with T for three different pressures. The heavy lines represent constant enthalpy lines and hence display the temperature history (as well as the entropy history) of a gas in an isenthalpic expansion. Above the point marked T_i , it is seen that a Joule-Thomson expansion always results in a temperature rise, no matter what the initial pressure. At T_i and here only for very low pressures, for example, point A, there is no change in T upon expansion. Below T_i , there is a drop in the temperature upon expansion, first at very low pressures and then with further decrease of the temperature at increasing pressures (path $B \rightarrow B$). At low tem

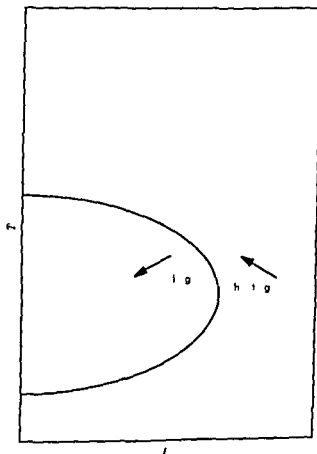
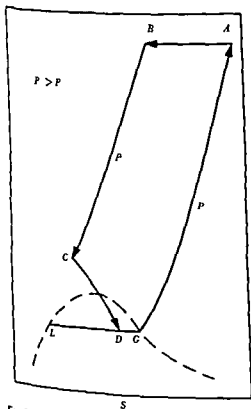


Fig 6 Inversion temperature versus pressure for a gas

pressures, the pressure at which cooling occurs
decreases. If the temperatures at which the inversion occurs are plotted
against the pressure, a roughly parabolic curve
is obtained. The maximum expansion
from any point within the parabola always pro-
duces cooling. From a point outside a heating
occurs until the pressure and temperature
of the gas is reduced sufficiently to bring it within
the parabola.

In considering this process for gas liquefaction, it must be remembered that at least until the expansion is complete, the temperature is low. The Joule-Thomson process is a fairly effective cooling process than is entropic expansion. By cycling the gas cyclically through a compressor, heat exchanger, and an expansion valve, however, the cooling obtained from the passage of each mass of gas through the valve can be made cumulative. In this manner, the temperature of the expansion valve is continuously reduced until finally enough refrigeration is produced to liquefy a fraction of the gas. Beyond this point, liquid and returning gas remain to the compressor through the heat exchanger, the further cooling of the expansion valve begins to decrease, and eventually a steady state is reached at which the refrigeration removed as liquid is balanced by the produced in the expansion. In Fig. 7 this steady state is represented on the P - T diagram. The ratio DG/LG is the fraction of



Eq 7 1 1e-Th mso 1q f ct cy l t m
pe ature- copy diag m (hght mp t d two-
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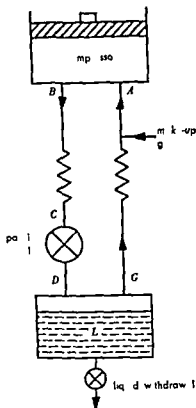


Fig 8 The L d q s l q f ct cycle

liquid produced per mole of gas passing through the Joule-Thomson valve the fraction DL/LG represents moles of gas returning to the compressor at which point make-up gas is added to the system an amount necessary to maintain steady state conditions throughout the cycle. The greatest attraction of the Joule-Thomson process is its lack of moving parts at low temperatures. Furthermore it provides a satisfactory method for producing the liquid and separating it from the gas stream as contrasted with the previously mentioned difficulties encountered when the liquid is allowed to form in a tubular expansion engine.

The Joule-Thomson process is used in many different ways in the practice of gas liquefaction. The simplest is that first developed by Carl von Linde shown in Fig. 8. The letters attached to the drawing correspond to the state of the gas as shown in Fig. 7. In practice, the pressure must be introduced gradually, and the compressions in order to prevent undesirable impurities from being gathered together. The basic cycle has been adapted in many ways of which few (1) use of an expansion engine, (2) use of a compressor or a gas engine at the point of compression, (3) use of additional precooling, and (4) use of direct refrigeration with liquefaction by heat exchange with the working fluid. It has also been noted that the reversible process of the liquid through the throttling process is used in the production of liquid air.

compression is an isenthalpic or Joule Thomson expansion

In the discussion of the four basic methods of gas liquefaction given above no association of a particular gas with one or more liquefaction schemes has been made. This omission has been deliberate because with few exceptions all schemes will work with all gases and therefore as mentioned earlier the choice of method is governed by other considerations.

Storage of liquefied gases Liquefied gases at temperatures below ambient could be stored in definitely if it were possible to prevent heat influx to the liquid from the warmer surroundings. No perfect heat insulators exist however hence heat constantly flows at a rate dependent upon the quality of the insulation into all such liquefied gas reservoirs. If the container is vented to the atmosphere this heat leak causes continuous evaporation of the reservoir contents. If the container is sealed the heat leak will cause the temperature of the liquid to rise with concomitant increase in the pressure until either the temperatures of the liquid and surroundings have equalized or until the increased pressure has ruptured the container. Because sufficiently effective insulation is now available to reduce boil off losses to economically tolerable levels atmospheric venting is common practice in most large storage facilities. Occasionally however because of hazard value of the product or liquefaction costs no loss storage of liquefied gases is required. This may be accomplished for short periods of time by simply plugging the vent line and allowing the temperature of (and pressure in) the reservoir to rise. For longer period refrigeration at the temperature level of the liquefied gas must be supplied to balance the heat leak to the container.

Liquefied gas containers range in size from tiny glass laboratory dewars for specialized studies with small amounts of rare liquids to reservoirs containing hundreds of thousands of gallons for use in industry. The insulation employed depends entirely upon the proposed usage. In a mile tank for example the storage time is short insulation can therefore be almost eliminated especially because minimization of propellant tank weight is a prime consideration. For storage of liquid helium however where reliquefaction is costly and the gas supply itself is not unlimited use of the best insulation available is usually justified. See ATMOSPHERIC CASES PRODUCTION OF [E F H]

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Liquefied petroleum gas (LPG)

A mixture of petroleum gases principally propane and butane which must be stored under pressure to keep it in a liquid state. At atmospheric pressure

and above freezing temperature these substances would be gases. Large quantities of propane and butane are now available from the gas and petroleum industries. These are often employed as fuel for tractors, trucks and buses and mainly as a domestic fuel in remote areas because of the low boiling point (-44 to 0°C) and high vapor pressure of these gases their handling, as liquids in pressure cylinders is necessary. Owing to demand from industry for butane derivatives LPG sold as fuel is made up largely of propane. On a gallonage basis production of LPG in the United States exceeds that of kerosene and approaches that of diesel fuel.

Operating figures for gasoline diesel and LPG fuels show that LPG compares favorably in cost per mile. LPG has a high octane rating making it useful in engines having compression ratios above 10:1.

Another factor of importance in internal combustion engines is that LPG leaves little or no engine deposit in the cylinders when it burns. Also since it enters the engine as a vapor it cannot wash down the cylinder walls, remove lubricant and increase cylinder wall piston and piston ring wear. Nor does it cause crankcase dilution. All these factors reduce engine wear, increase engine life and keep maintenance costs low. However allowances must be made for the extra cost of LPG handling equipment. The LPG must be stored in relatively heavy pressurized tanks and special equipment must be used to fill the fuel tanks on the vehicles. See GAS TURBINE INTERNAL COMBUSTION ENGINE PETROLEUM PRODUCTS [M 60]

Liquid

A fluid which flows under exceedingly low shear stresses and which conforms to the shape of a containing vessel but which lacks the capacity to expand indefinitely. Above their critical temperature liquids are indistinguishable from dense gases and it is possible to devise an infinite number of paths by which the transition from a liquid to a gas may occur continuously. Ordinarily the range of pressure and temperature over which the liquid state exists is intermediate between that for solids and gases. For substances whose triple points lie above 1 atm pressure however the liquid state is stable only at higher pressures.

Structure of liquids For normal substance the liquid is formed from the solid at the melting point by the absorption of the latent heat of fusion. Generally the density of the liquid state is slightly lower than that of the solid and melting is accompanied by an increase in volume. A relatively small number of substances including lithium gallium germanium and silicon contract on melting. No satisfactory explanation of the presence of melting exists largely because of the inadequacy of the theory of liquid. Liquid like solid possesses a vapor pressure which depends upon the temperature (see VAPOR PRESSURE) and it is when the vapor pressure is equal to the ambient pressure the energy absorbed in the liquid vapor phase

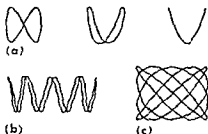


Fig 1 Typical Lissajous figures for ratios of vertical frequency to horizontal frequency of (a) 2:1 with various phase relations (b) 3:1 (c) 5:4 (From F E Terma Radio Engineers Handbook McGraw-Hill 1943)

mounted on the prong of a separate tuning fork the forks vibrate in perpendicular directions and the image of the light source focused on a screen trace out the figure

The cathode ray oscilloscope furnishes the most important and practical means for the generation of the figures. The x deflection plates of the tube are supplied with one alternating voltage and the y deflection plates with another. If the frequencies are incommensurable the figure is not a closed curve and except for very low frequencies will appear as a patch of light because of the persistence of the screen. On the other hand if the frequencies are commensurable the figure is closed and strictly periodic it is a true Lissajous figure stationary on the screen and if the persistence is sufficient visible continuously as a complete pattern. See OSCILLOSCOPE CATHODE RAY

Frequency measurements Measurement of frequency in sinusoidal wave motion (for example in alternating electric current) may be accomplished with an oscilloscope if one of the alternating voltages is derived from a variable frequency calibrated oscillator. The standard is adjusted until a stationary figure results. If f is the frequency of the signal on the vertical deflection plates and f_h that on the horizontal plates then f/f_h equals the number of times a side of the figure is tangent to a vertical line divided by the number of times the

top or bottom is tangent to a horizontal line. The shape of the figure depends also on the relative phase of the signals (see Fig 1) and in the case where one half of the figure coincides with the other the rule just stated does not hold. This situation is not troublesome in practice because unavoidable slow frequency drifts of the signals prevent the figure from being exactly stationary instead the shape of the figure changes as though the relative phase of the signals were slowly changing.

In some cases the standard is of fixed frequency and the unknown is nearly equal to the standard (or to some multiple or submultiple thereof). The figure will drift slowly through the various aspects it can assume for the nominal ratio involved. The actual ratio can be obtained from the nominal ratio and a correction determined by the rate and direction of drift of the figure. This method is particularly valuable for the intercomparison of standards.

Phase measurements These usually involve two signals of the same frequency. In this case the Lissajous figure is an ellipse of which the shape and orientation depend on the relative phase and relative amplitudes of the signals as shown in Fig 2. The relative phase θ is given by

$$\sin \theta = \pm B/A$$

in which A is the maximum half height and B is the intercept on the y axis. Figure 2 shows how the quadrant in which θ lies is determined by the orientation of the major axis of the ellipse and the direction of motion of the spot. If the latter is unknown the resulting ambiguity amounts to that in the sign of $\sin \theta$ once it is decided which signal is the reference. The ambiguity can be resolved by shifting the phase of either signal in a known direction and noting whether the phase shift indicated by the figure increases or decreases.

The most precise comparison can be made when the ellipse degenerates into a straight line. This condition is therefore used as a null in measurements made with a calibrated phase shifter. The

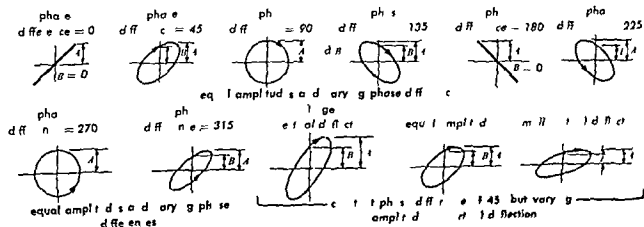


Fig 2 Typical Lissajous figures of 1:1 frequency ratio (From F E Terma Radio Engineers Handbook McGraw-Hill 1943)

unknown phase height to be the calculated phase height rest of it

Most complicated figures are employed in the calculation of phase heights. A signal at the desired frequency is detected through the phase shifter the y plates of an oscilloscope and then through a frequency multiplier to the x plates. If the frequency multiplication is 8 for example the Lissajous figure will appear as a figure 8. The phase shifter is then used solely set the ratio point for which one-half of the figure coincides with the other these positions will correspond phase difference in the case of $\pi/8$.
 C. PHASE ANGLE MEASUREMENT [MGR]

Biology Lord Ryleigh *Theory of Sound* vol. 1, reprint, 194 F.E. Term and J.M.P. t. *Electronic Measurement* 2d ed 1952

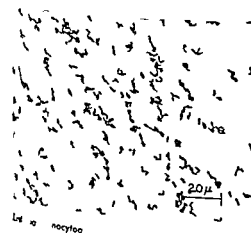
Listeriosis

A disease of man and animal caused by a small gram-positive bacillus *Listeria monocytogenes*. The microorganism, member of the family Corynebacteriaceae has been isolated from man and 27 species of animals and birds; 30 countries from the Arctic to the Tropics. The epidemiology is not understood.

The organism is surrounded by 1-3 μ . Small rod with rounded ends predominate showing palisade formation and short chains. Young both cultures display characteristic tumbling motility. Growth on simple media is enhanced by enrichment with blood or glucose. There are four serotypes (see serology).

Listeriosis: animal takes many forms such as meningococcal in wine goats and sheep distemper like disease in dogs and foals general infection in rabbit and guinea pigs with foal liver necrosis and marked macrocytosis. Abortions with extensive fetal necrosis may occur in rumen in sheep and cattle.

Listeriosis in man occurs primarily as a meningitis or encephalitis and is associated with high fetal newborn mortality and neonatal septicemia.
 (SEPTICEMIA)



Diagnosis depends on isolation of *Listeria* from appropriate clinical specimens. Identification is certain if a pure culture is inoculated to the rabbit conjunctiva produces a keratoconjunctivitis. An agglutination titration of serum from patients is diagnostically significant.

Treatment should be based on in vitro sensitivity tests on the strain isolated. See BACTERIOLOGY MEDICAL CORYNEBACTERIACEAE FEMIDEMIOLOGY [RWR]

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Lithium

With an atomic number of 3 and an atomic weight of 6.94 lithium (Li) stands at the head of the alkali metal family; group Ia in the periodic table of the elements. Lithium in nature is a mixture of the two isotopes Li^6 and Li^7 . Much of the commercially processed lithium in the United States has been subjected to isotope separation in the interest

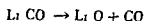
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|----|----|---|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|---|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|---|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|
| Li | Na | K | Rb | Cs | Ba | La | Ce | Pr | Nd | Pm | Sm | Eu | Gd | Tb | Dy | Ho | Er | Tm | Yb | Lu | Hf | Ta | W | Re | Os | Ir | Pt | Au | Hg | Tl | Pb | Bi | Po | At | Rn | Fr | Ra | Ac | Th | Pa | U | Np | Pu | Am | Cm | Bk | Cf | Es | Fm | Md | No | Lr |
|----|----|---|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|---|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|---|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|

of obtaining the pure lighter isotope of lithium Li^6 . The lighter lithium isotope plays an important role in thermionic processes. Lithium is available in the market may thus have a noticeably different atomic weight because of the removal of the lighter isotope. It is the lightest of the elements, a soft, low melting, gray metal. In many of its physical and chemical properties it resembles the alkali earth metals; group IIa as a metal, more than does the alkali metal family of which it is a member.

The element was first discovered by J.A. Arfvedson, Swedish, in 1817. It was first isolated by S.H. Humphry Davy in 1818 by electrolysis.

Uses: The major industrial uses of lithium are in the form of lithium metal as a thickener for lubricating greases. Lithium base greases combine with water with high temperature resistance and good low temperature properties. The alloy of lithium with magnesium is a material of specialized uses and is used in the capture of ultraviolet light in the ultraviolet spectrum. A thermally stable lithium compound is used in the production of the lithium-sulfur battery. The major use of the lithium is

flux. In ceramic mixtures lithium carbonate readily undergoes the reaction



yielding the Li_2O as one constituent of the oxide mixtures of which most ceramics are composed. Alternatively lithium aluminum silicate ores can be used directly.

There are a number of uses for lithium and its compounds. Lithium hydroxide is used as an additive to give longer life and higher output in the alkaline storage batteries known as Edison cells. Lithium chloride and fluoride are used in welding and brazing fluxes. Lithium copper and lithium silver alloys are used as self-fluxing brazing alloys. Lithium perchlorate has been suggested as an oxidizer for solid propellant rocket mixture. It offers a higher percentage of available oxygen than any other perchlorate due to the low atomic weight of the lithium.

Occurrence. Lithium is a moderately abundant element and is present in the earth's crust to the extent of 65 parts per million (ppm). This places lithium a little below nickel, copper, and tungsten and a little above cerium and tin in abundance. In sea water there is about 0.1 ppm of lithium. It is found in human and animal organisms, in oil in mineral water, and in plants such as cocoa, tobacco, and seaweed. Its presence in the sun's atmosphere has been established.

Although lithium occurs widely in nature, the concentrations in ores are generally quite low, unlike sodium and potassium, whose relatively pure halides may be mined or pumped from brine wells. Lithium resembles rubidium and cesium in its manner of occurrence as a part of complex silicate mineral. Lithium ore as such is usually expressed in terms of percent of lithium oxide, Li_2O , and 10% of Li_2O affords a commercially profitable ore. Most commercial ores run from 1-3% Li_2O . Virgin ore rarely contains as much as 6%. In North America the most common lithium ore is spodumene, which generally occurs in pegmatite formation in a variety of fields. The largest known reserve areas are in the King Mountain area of North Carolina, in Quebec, and in Manitoba. Substantial quantities of lepidolite and petalite occur in Africa, particularly in Rhodesia. Amblygonite, the other commercially important lithium mineral, is found in Europe, Africa, and South America. A nonmineral source of lithium is the brine in Searle Lake, California. Table 1 lists the important lithium ore.

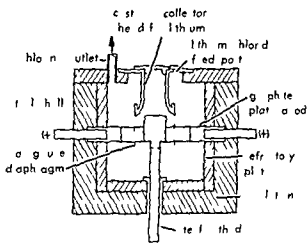
Table 1 Commercially important lithium minerals

| Mineral | Simplified formula | % Li_2O theoretical |
|-------------|---|-------------------------------------|
| Spodumene | Li_2SiO_3 | 8.03 |
| Lepidolite | $\text{Li}_2\text{Mg}_3(\text{Si}_3\text{O}_{10})_2(\text{OH})_2$ | 4.09 |
| Petalite | $\text{Li}_2\text{Al}_2\text{Si}_4\text{O}_{12}$ | 3.89 |
| Amblygonite | $\text{LiAlSi}_2\text{PO}_6$ | 10.10 |

Metallurgical extraction. Lithium ore are concentrated from 1-3% Li_2O to 4-6% Li_2O by heavy media separation using dense nonaqueous liquid and by froth flotation. The silicate ores, which are the processed most widely, are then chemically cleaved by acid or alkaline process.

In the acid process, spodumene ore is first heated in a kiln at about 1000-1100°C to change the naturally occurring alpha-spodumene to beta-spodumene, a more friable less dense crystal form which is readily attacked by the acid. The ore is then roasted in a second kiln with an excess of sulfuric acid. Water leaching of the kiln product yields lithium sulfate which is treated with sodium carbonate to give lithium carbonate. The carbonate is converted to the chloride by reaction with hydrochloric acid.

In the alkaline process, spodumene or lepidolite ores are ground and calcined with about 3 parts limestone to 1 part lithium ore at 900-1000°C. Water leaching of the kiln product yields lithium hydroxide which is converted to the chloride by reaction with hydrochloric acid.



Cross section of lithium cell

Dry lithium chloride is the feed material for the manufacture of lithium metal by electrolysis. The cell bath is a molten mixture of lithium chloride and potassium chloride. The cell is operated at 100-170°C with a voltage of 8-9 V. The current consumption in the electrolysis is about 18 kilowatt hours per pound of lithium produced. The illustration shows a typical lithium cell.

Thermochemical processes for the manufacture of lithium have been tried but have not been applied commercially.

Physical properties. The physical properties of lithium metal which make it attractive for many of its present and potential uses are summarized in Table 2. (The values cited are the best available; there are many values in the literature which do not agree with them.)

Noteworthy among the physical properties is the high specific heat (heat capacity) for a wide temperature range of the liquid phase (liquid thermal

Tab 2. Physic l propert f lith m met l

| Prop rt | Tempe at e | | M t ic (sec ntific) u it | B t l (en ee i g) n ts |
|---------------------|------------|-------|-----------------------------|---------------------------|
| | C | F | | |
| Den ty | 0 | 68 | 0.331 g/cm | 33 lb/ft |
| | 400 | | 0.490 g/ | 30.6 lb/ft |
| | 800 | 11 | 0.4 g/ m | 8.6 lb/ft |
| M l ng po t | 1.9 | 3.4 | | |
| Boiling point | 131 | 103 | | 186 Bt /lb |
| Heat f | 1.9 | 3.4 | 103 l/g | 81.0 Bt /lb |
| Heat of apo zat | 131 | 103 | 1680 c l/g | 111 k t t |
| Visco ty | 00 | 39 | 5.6 n ill po ses | 8 k t c t |
| | 400 | | 4.0 m ll po ses | 6 k t u t |
| | 600 | 111 | 3.17 mill po ses | 0.01 ll/i |
| l po pressure | | | 0.8 mm | 1 c ll/n |
| | 10 | | 91.0 mm | 6.5 Bt /l)(ft)(F) |
| Therm l co d t it y | 16 | 4.0 | 0.109 c l/(sec)(cm)(m)(C) | 1.6 Btu/(l)(ft)(F) |
| | 539 | 100 | 0.03 al/(sec)(cm)(m)(C) | 0.90 Bt /)(l)(F) |
| Heat capac ty | 100 | 1 | 0.90 cal/(g)(C) | 1.0 Bt /)(lb)(F) |
| | 300 | 57 | 1.0 l/(g)(C) | 0.99 Bt /)(l)(F) |
| | 800 | 11 | 0.99 l (g)(C) | |
| Elect cal res t ty | 0 | 3 | 134 m rol m-cm | |
| | 100 | 1 | 1 m rol m-cm | |
| Surf ce ten | 00-500 | 39-93 | Abo t 400 dynes/ n | |

d t t l w c t y a d y l w d e t y
Lithum m t l sol ble n l q d n m a a d
n l g h t l soluble in th l w r l i p h t c m i e s
b a e t h l m l t n o l b l e n t h y d o c l
Ther a p b l h e d d t a n t h e l u b l i t y o f
Lithum m t l s m l t n n g n l t
Chemical properties Lith m u d g e s l a e
umbe of cto th b th o g a n i c a d n o r
t x r e g i s
l o g a c t a s Lith m r e a t s w t h x y g e n
to form the m n x i d e L i O d t h e p e r x d
L i O . The p e d L O i n t k n o w n n d
e a v t e x t b e r u s e f i n s u f f i e t o m f o r t w
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Lithum m t l the n l y l k l m t l t h a t r e a t w t h
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L i A w b h a b l a c k
Lithum m t l a d d i l s w t h h y d r g n a t a b u t
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b f r i d t b l e g h t b e m l t e d w t h o t d e
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c a r b o n t o f o r m t h c a b d e L C L i t h u m o m
b o r e d a i l y i t h t h h l o g e t l a t d t e m
p r i t e s f r m h a l d e w t h t h e e m f
l i g h t L i t h m d o e t b u n c h l n n l
b e r d d i s t n l y p e r f l l y w t h l q u d
b m p m a b l y b u e f i t m t n f
r a e r t h l d e t g s
w b m m l i t h m r c t t f o r m t h m d
L i N H Th t n m y b r i e d u t b y h t g
L i t h m t m f m m a a t 400 C o b
t n t h l q u d m m i n t h p e f

t a l y t c h s i n O n h t i n g t h e a m d e l e s
a m m s a t f o r m t h m i d e L N H l i t h m i t h
n l a l k l i m e t l w h i c h f r m a n m d e
L i t h u m a n d c a r l n m o i d e r e t t g i v l i t h
u m a r b o n y l L C O r a t h e r u n t b l p r d u t
O g a n i c e t o s W h i l l i t h u m d n t r t
w t h p a f f n h y d b n t d e s a n d r g a d d
t n e i o n w t h a v l t e d a l k e n e a d w t h
d e Th a d d i t i n o f l i t h u m t d e n s y t e m t
t h e b i f o r t h l i t i p l m e a t n o f d e s
t v n t h e t i c o m h a n g a t u r l r b b r p r o p
e t e s O e r e c n i l d e l p e d t h e t c r b l m
p l y l i t h m m t a l d p e e d i p e t o l e m j e l l y
t h a t l t t p o l y m p e n e t s p l y o p
p e t h e x c t r s r l u t e r p a r t f n t u r l
h e a r b l f o m H a b a s i l e s (r u b b e
t r e) L i t h m a l o r e a t s w t h e t y l n i c m
p u d r p l n g t h a e t y l e n h y d g n t m
a d f r m g l i t h u m c e t y l d e w h c h a e m p o r
t t i t h s y n t h i f v t m n A
L i t h m m e t a l e c t w t h a l c h l f m n g l i t h
u m a l k d e L i O R n d l i b e r a t n g h y d g n A l k
x d f m l e s e d i l y w t h l i t h m t h n t h e y
d w t h d m a d t h e m m c i l t i l t y i
m h l e t h a t a t o f t h s o d m l k x d e s
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m p n d a n t e m e d a t e w h i h a n b e h y d r o
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p d a d d t l d h y d e s d k t o n e g i n g d d
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g c m p n d s i f e a m p l e t h e r e
d t f o m a t h y d a b t m o o l f i n

Not only lithium metal but also compounds derived directly from lithium metal are important in organic chemistry. Thus lithium amide LiNH_2 made from lithium and ammonia is used to introduce amino groups as a dehalogenating agent and as a catalyst. Lithium aluminum hydride LiAlH_4 , made by the reaction of lithium hydride and aluminum chloride, is a powerful reducing agent for specific linkages in complex molecules. This reagent has become important in many organic syntheses.

Availability Lithium is available in two grades: a regular grade containing 99.8% lithium and a low sodium grade containing 0.005% sodium or less.

The metal is available commercially in the form of shot wire ribbon and in cylindrical bricks. The shot is shipped under hydrocarbon and the wire and ribbon are coated with petrolatum. The bricks (usually one pound in weight) are shipped in hermetically sealed metal cans.

The 1958 lithium metal production rate in the United States was several hundred thousand pounds a year and the price was about \$10 per pound depending on the quantity ordered.

Lithium salts are many times more expensive than the corresponding sodium or potassium compounds. The hydroxide and carbonate in 1958 were 60-90¢ per pound.

Handling Handling of lithium metal is much the same as handling sodium metal with a few specific exceptions:

1. Because lithium reacts with nitrogen, argon or helium must be used instead of nitrogen to blanket molten lithium.

2. Because molten lithium reacts with glass and ceramics, metal equipment must be used.

3. Lithium fires are more easily extinguished by the use of graphite powder in contrast to the use of the metal halide or carbonate powders for the extinguishing of other alkali metal fires.

4. Lithium behaves differently in the presence of other materials. See SODIUM.

Principal compounds The most important lithium compound in terms of major uses and pounds produced is lithium hydroxide. As discussed earlier, it is the end product resulting from water leaching of the clinker produced by limestone roasting of lithium ores. It is also produced from the lithium sulfate from the sulfuric acid roasting process. It is a white powder and the material of commerce is actually lithium hydroxide monohydrate $\text{LiOH} \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$. Tallow or another natural fat is cooked with the lithium hydroxide producing lithium stearate which is used as a thickener or gelling agent to transform oil into lithium base lubricating grease. The U.S. Atomic Energy Commission also makes substantial purchases of the hydroxide.

Lithium carbonate Li_2CO_3 finds application in the ceramic industries, particularly in the manufacture of frits (powdered glass) for porcelain enamel formulation.

Both lithium halides, lithium chloride and lithium bromide, form concentrated brines having the ability to absorb moisture over a wide temperature range. These brines are used in commercial air conditioning systems. The chloride and fluoride have low melting points, high boiling points and high solvent power for metal oxides. The properties lead to commercial applications in welding and brazing fluxes for aluminum, magnesium and titanium.

Lithium hydride discussed earlier under inorganic reactions of the metal is also of major importance. It was used in large amounts during World War II as a compact source of hydrogen for military balloon inflation. The deuterium formed by lithium-6 can be converted in a thermonuclear reaction to two atoms of helium with the evolution of large amounts of energy. This energy may provide the key to thermonuclear power production.

Analytical methods In most quantitative analytical separations, all other elements are removed, leaving the alkali metal ions in solution. Lithium chloride is separated from the other alkali chlorides by virtue of its greater solubility in organic solvents and then converted to lithium sulfate, dried and weighed.

For qualitative identification of lithium, the characteristic crimson color produced when lithium compounds are introduced into a hot flame is very satisfactory. A flame spectrophotometer may be used to measure the intensity of the characteristic lithium color at 670.8 millimicrons wavelength. This technique is the most suitable for routine determination of lithium because it is fast and accurate. See ALKALI METALS. [M.S.]

Bibliography R. N. Lyon, *Liquid Metals Handbook*, 2d ed., Navexos P 733, 1954.

Lithosphere

A term initially used in a general way to distinguish the rock phase of the earth from the hydrosphere, biosphere, and atmosphere at the surface of the earth. The term lithosphere has been used variously in recent geological literature to designate the crust ("upper lithosphere"), the crust plus the mantle (that is, the total solid phase of the earth), or the entire solid part of the earth (crust + mantle + core). The latter is thought to consist mainly of a mixture of iron and nickel, the mantle mainly of iron and magnesium silicates, and the crust of siliceous rocks with an average composition somewhere near that of granite. See EARTH ELEMENTS (GEOCHEMICAL DISTRIBUTION). LITHOSPHERE, GEOCHEMISTRY OF. See also ATMOSPHERE, BIOSPHERE, HYDROSPHERE.

(11011)

Lithosphere geochemistry of

The study of the distribution of the elements and of their isotopes in the lithosphere and the hydrosphere, both past and present, which affects the distribution. The lithosphere contains more than 99% of the mass of the earth. It is therefore the

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Lithosphere

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Lithosphere geochemistry of

The study of the distribution of the elements and of their isotopes in the lithosphere and of the processes both past and present which affect this distribution. The lithosphere contains more than 99% of the mass of the earth, it is the reservoir

Average chemical composition of sediments and rocks

| | Si | SiO ₂ | TiO ₂ | Al ₂ O ₃ | FeO | Fe ₂ O ₃ | MnO | MgO | CaO | Na ₂ O | K ₂ O | P ₂ O ₅ | CO ₂ | H ₂ O |
|---|----|------------------|------------------|--------------------------------|------|--------------------------------|-----|------|------|-------------------|------------------|-------------------------------|-----------------|------------------|
| Sediments and sedimentary rocks | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Calcareous sand oozes | 1 | 18.8 | 0.3 | 1.3 | 3.8 | | 0.4 | 1.4 | 39.0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 9.8 | |
| Red clay | 2 | 5.8 | 0.9 | 16.1 | 9.0 | | 1.0 | 2.9 | | 1 | | 0.3 | 1.6 | |
| Silicious oozes | 3 | 55.5 | 0.5 | 1.5 | 5.8 | | 0.4 | 3 | 9 | 1.0 | | 0.3 | 6.9 | |
| Average pelagic sediment | 4 | 8.5 | 0.4 | 8.1 | 0 | | 0.6 | 1.8 | 30.5 | 0.8 | 1 | 0 | 9 | |
| Composition of suboceanic sediments | 5 | 13.7 | 0.7 | 11.6 | 1.6 | 0.6 | 0.3 | 4 | 11 | 1.1 | 1.8 | 0.1 | 1 | |
| Average ediment | 6 | 11.5 | 0.6 | 10.9 | 1.0 | 0 | 0.3 | 2.6 | 19 | 1.1 | 1.9 | 0.1 | 1.1 | |
| Average shale ^a | 7 | 58.10 | 0.6 | 15.40 | 10 | 4 | | 11 | 3.11 | 1.30 | 3 | 1.01 | 63 | 5.00 |
| Average sandstone ^a | 8 | 78.33 | 0.5 | 17 | 1.07 | 0.30 | | 1.16 | 5 | 0.04 | 1.31 | 0.08 | 5.03 | 1.63 |
| Average limestone ^a | 9 | 5.19 | 0.07 | 0.81 | 0.54 | | | 8.1 | | 0.0 | 0.33 | 0.04 | 11.51 | 0 |
| Average sediment ^a | 10 | 57.9 | 0.51 | 13.39 | 3.4 | 0.08 | | 6 | 89 | 1.13 | 8.6 | 0.13 | 38 | 3.3 |
| Igneous rocks | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 516 granites ^a | 11 | 70.8 | 0.4 | 11.6 | 1.6 | 1.8 | 0.1 | 0.9 | 0 | 3 | 1.1 | 0 | | |
| 137 granodiorites ^a | 1 | 67.2 | 0.6 | 1.8 | 1.3 | 6 | 0.1 | 1.6 | 3.6 | 3.2 | 3.1 | 0.2 | | |
| 635 intermediate igneous rocks ^a | 13 | 51.9 | 1 | 10.7 | 3.3 | 5 | 0 | 3.8 | 6.6 | 4 | 3.2 | 0.4 | | |
| 198 basalts ^a | 14 | 49.9 | 1.4 | 16.0 | 5.4 | 6.5 | 0.3 | 4.3 | 3.1 | 3.2 | 1 | 0.4 | | |
| 18 ultramafic rocks ^a | 15 | 44.0 | 1.7 | 6.1 | 4.5 | 8.8 | 0.2 | 7 | 10.2 | 0.8 | 0.7 | 0.3 | | |
| Average igneous rocks ^a | 16 | 60.1 | 1.1 | 15.6 | 3.1 | 3.9 | 0.1 | 3 | | 3.9 | 3.2 | 0.3 | | |
| Metamorphic rocks | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 20 quartzofeldspathic gneisses ^a | 17 | 0.7 | 0.5 | 11.5 | 1.6 | 2.0 | 0.1 | 1 | | 3 | 3.8 | 0 | | |
| 103 mica schists ^a | 18 | 64.3 | 1.0 | 1 | 1 | 1.6 | 0.1 | 7 | 1.1 | 1.9 | 3 | 0 | | |
| 61 slates ^a | 19 | 61.8 | 0 | 1.1 | 3.3 | 5.4 | 0.2 | 9 | 1.0 | 1 | 3.8 | 0.1 | | |
| 200 amphibolite ^a | 20 | 0.3 | 1.6 | 15.7 | 3.6 | 7.8 | 0 | 1.0 | 9 | | 1.1 | 0.3 | | |
| Crust of the earth | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Average composition | 21 | | 1.6 | 1.3 | 8 | 5.8 | 0 | 2 | 8.8 | 9 | 1.9 | 0.3 | | |
| Average composition ^a | 22 | 60.18 | 1.06 | 1.61 | 3.14 | 3.38 | | 3.6 | 1 | 3.91 | 3.19 | 0.30 | | |

Based on summaries by A. I. Alderwaard in *Crust of the Earth* Geol. Soc. Am. Spec. Paper 6, 1961, and B. Mason in *Principles of Geochemistry*, 2nd ed., Wiley, 1958.

^a Values omitted where samples were calculated water free.

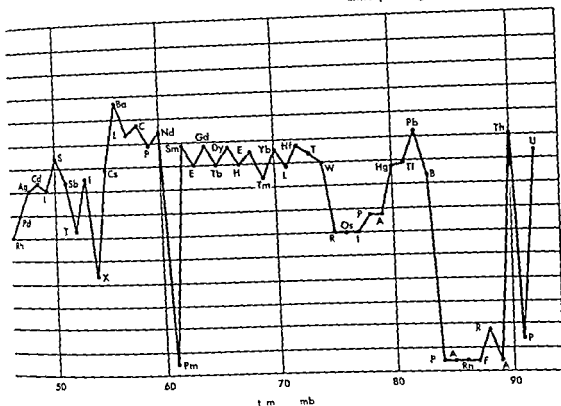
From Alderwaard figure if given refers to index number as used in P. Alderwaard.

^a From Mason.

analyzed although the olivine bombs ejected from a number of volcanoes may well have been derived from the mantle. Present thinking regarding the chemical composition of this portion of the earth is therefore based almost entirely on geophysical evidence and on the circumstantial meteorite evidence. The latter line of evidence suggests that the composition of the mantle is not very different from that of ultramafic igneous rock (see index 15 in the table). The geophysical evidence is in substantial agreement with this hypothesis. However, the evaluation of the density and elastic wave propagation data is at present rather tenuous since observations on the state of silicate minerals at temperatures and pressures characteristic of the middle and lower portions of the mantle are still very fragmentary. At present it seems likely that silicon, oxygen, magnesium, iron, and calcium are in fact the major elements in the earth's mantle, but the crystalline phases in which they occur still remain to be determined. It is also very likely that the mantle at least in its upper portion is more heterogeneous than has usually been assumed and that its structure may be almost a complicated one that of the crust.

Knowledge of the abundance of the minor elements in the mantle is even more fragmentary than that regarding the major elements. Only in the case of the radioactive elements can something be said independent of the meteorite model. The abundance of the elements must be low enough to prevent melting of the mantle and this must mean that the abundance of potassium, uranium, and thorium must be very much less in the mantle than in the crust. In theory, heat flow measurements can give more definite indications about maximum concentrations of the elements in the mantle. However, the complexities introduced by radiative and convective heat flow in the mantle introduce serious complications into the interpretation of surface heat flow measurements. See EARTH (HEAT FLOW).

Chemical composition of the core. The core of the earth consists of the material between a depth of 2898 km and the center of the earth. It is similar to the earth in the study of the composition of the mantle and is a limit study of the core. Again all data are circumstantial. The most recent data suggest a core of metallic iron with an admixture of nickel. The geophysical data in the table



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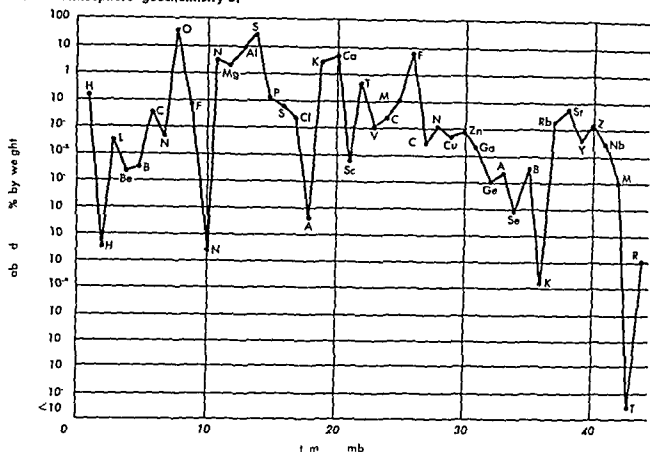


Fig 2 Crustal abundance of elements of atomic number 1-52

fore the advent of x ray crystallography were shown to be quite natural results of their often complicated silicon oxygen framework structures and the development of the crystal chemistry of the silicates has been one of the most significant contributions of mineralogy to geology since 1920. See SILICATE MINERALS.

Processes involving the lithosphere. The earth is not at rest. Earthquakes, volcanism, and mountain building, the three major manifestations of disequilibrium at depth, are evidence of widespread physical and chemical change below the surface of the earth. Erosion and chemical weathering are evidence for the pronounced disequilibrium between the atmosphere and the lithosphere. Chemical changes are thus taking place at various levels in the lithosphere and at the boundary between the lithosphere and the atmosphere, biosphere, and hydrosphere. The processes taking place at the earth's surface can be observed directly, and are therefore more completely understood than the processes taking place within and below the earth's crust. Yet it is just the processes at depth which are of primary interest as a key to the history of the crustal evolution of the earth.

For most of the elements the earth can be considered a closed or an almost closed system. The two major exceptions to this rule are hydrogen and helium, which escape at significant rates from the upper atmosphere. Hydrogen escape has probably played an important role in the evolution of the atmosphere from a methane-ammonia-argon-water vapor mixture to its present highly oxidized

state. Minor exceptions to the rule are those elements which are entering the atmosphere as constituents of meteorites or as cosmic ray particles, or which are swept up by the earth. It seems unlikely that these additions have affected the chemistry of the earth materially.

The earth can therefore be regarded as an essentially closed system consisting of a number of reservoirs. The exchange between these reservoirs may be appreciable and is often a complex function of time. In times comparable to the age of the earth, the mass and composition of various reservoirs have changed radically. The basic problem in the study of the dynamics of geochemistry thus consists of defining suitable reservoirs and of determining the nature and the rates of the processes which are operating on them today and which have done so in the past.

The primary division of the earth into the lithosphere, hydrosphere, and atmosphere is convenient since the limits of these reservoirs are reasonably well defined and their contents of appreciably different kinds. The biosphere has a somewhat different status since in space it overlaps the other spheres completely. The primary division into four spheres is too coarse for many problems in earth science. The subdivision of the lithosphere into crust, mantle, and core is evidence of the need for further subdivision of the crust into sediment and sedimentary rocks, metamorphic rock, and igneous rocks was implied in the discussion of the average chemical composition of material in these categories. Further subdivision of these large units

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Litopterna

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See DENTITION

The earliest known mammal an f una n South
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Pl e torene t me [K H T]

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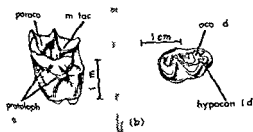


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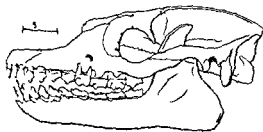


Fig 2 Sk l l nd jaw f Th d g H m n
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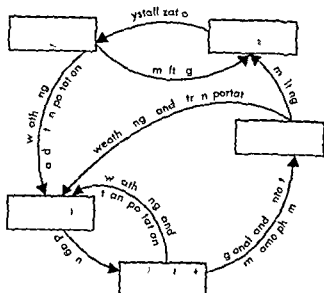


Fig 3 Important features of major geochemical cycle

quartz, SiO_2 and calcite CaCO_3 are stable in the zone of weathering. They will only dissolve in rain and ground water until the waters are saturated with respect to SiO_2 and CaCO_3 .

The processes of weathering and transport thus alter exposed units of the lithosphere in the direction of equilibrium with the atmosphere but often do not reach this state completely. See WEATHERING PROCESSES.

Sedimentation and diagenesis The processes which take place as sediments enter the oceans are complicated but normally alter their overall chemistry and mineralogy only slightly. However, evaporation in closed or partially closed basins can lead to the formation of evaporite beds of composition very different from that of the normal detrital sediments. Sequences of sulfates, carbonates and halides formed in such environments are therefore interspersed with sediments consisting largely of silicates and oxides. In stratigraphic columns of many areas the overall composition of these columns is then on the average appreciably richer in carbon dioxide, water, chlorine, nitrogen, sulfur and boron than average igneous rock. This is not unexpected since CO_2 and H_2O as well as a geologically important compound of the other elements are in a gaseous state at the temperature of rock melts and are undoubtedly lost preferentially to the earth's surface and incorporated in sediments. See EVAPORITE (SALINE), FUSED SALT PHASE EQUILIBRIA.

After deposition most sediments become buried. They therefore are subjected to higher temperatures and pressures. Under these conditions cementation, loss of porosity and a certain amount of recrystallization take place and some lime stones and shales (the major types of sedimentary rocks) are formed. Such changes are perhaps most pronounced in the case of carbonaceous sediments. Peat becomes dehydrated and passes through the various grades of coal approaching the composition of graphite with increasing depth of burial. See DIAGENESIS.

Metamorphism At temperatures and pressures higher than those normally encountered in diagenesis, important changes take place in the mineralogy and texture of most sedimentary rocks. These changes are termed metamorphism and lead to the formation of metamorphic rocks. It is obvious that there is no sharply defined boundary between diagenetic and metamorphic processes. See METAMORPHISM.

Metamorphism may either be local in nature and in the vicinity of a body of intrusive igneous rock or it may be regional, occasioned by a rise in temperature, pressure or both over a considerable area. Reactions in both contact and regional metamorphism are determined by the prevailing pressure and temperature by the composition of the rock units and by the kinetics of the possible reactions. Understanding of these reactions has been increasing especially since the introduction of water as a component in systems studied in the laboratory and the investigation of material transport during metamorphism. Metamorphic reactions are apparently nearly isochemical although the transport of certain elements suggests that small volume of rock undergoing metamorphism cannot safely be regarded as closed systems. See SILICATE PHASE EQUILIBRIA.

Melting and crystallization At still higher temperature melting of rock units begins. The composition of rock melts depends on the composition of the parent material on the ratio of liquid volume to that of the solid residuum on the temperature and pressure during melting and on the degree of equilibrium attained between the liquid and solid phases. The liquid fraction may move into higher levels of the earth's crust and may even break through to the surface as lava or other volcanic products. At the lower temperatures higher in the crust crystallization normally takes place. The nature of the resulting solids is determined largely by the initial composition of the liquid and by the conditions prevailing during cooling. With the aid of pertinent laboratory studies the relationship between many different igneous rock types from the highly silicic granites through the intermediate gabbros to the ultramafic peridotite and dunite have been satisfactorily established although the major question of the origin of the bulk of the igneous rock of the upper crust is still largely unanswered. See MAGMA.

This question leads directly to the question of the nature and extent of exchange between mantle and crustal material and to the exchange of material between the core and the mantle. However, a long as knowledge of temperature in the mantle and core and of the behavior and movement of material in the mantle is a circumstantial affair as at present the discussion of these questions below the level of the crust is very fruitful.

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Litopterna

These were hoofed herbivores confined to the Cenozoic of South America. The order was well represented from the Paleocene to the Pleistocene and apparently arose in the continent from a common ancestor. By late Pleistocene time two main lines of descent were clearly demarcated. The Protheriidae (Fig 1) displayed a remarkable evolutionary convergence with the horses in their dentition and reduction of the lateral digits to three feet. The foot was reduced to a single median toe by the Miocene time. The members of the Meridiungulata (Fig 2) were properly adapted to the semiarid and by late Tertiary time had similarly lost the lateral arterial anastomosis of the vertebral arteries. They easily developed a tendency to reduction of the nasal bones by the Tertiary time the alveolar process was situated below the eyes on top of the skull. The specialization to the high light and the presence of a trunk with the digits all tufted and adapted for browsing amphibious existence. The functional digit in the feet of the most advanced macraucheniids. See CONDYLARTHRA

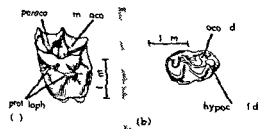


Fig 1 (a) Upper jaw of a litoptern (b) Lower jaw of a litoptern. Scale bar 1 cm.



Fig 2 Skull of a litoptern showing the nasal bone, molar, and hypocone. Scale bar 1 cm.

Both groups have the following characters held typical for the order. The skull was without expansion of the temporal squamosal sinus as in the ungulates a postorbital bar was present. Dentition was primitive with full eutherian formula and a tendency to reduction of incisors and upper canine teeth. Cheek teeth were unreduced lower to higher worn the posterior premolars becoming molariform. The upper molars were quadrate the paracanth metacone were erect. The protocone was present but the metaloph absent. The lower molar were erect. The entoconid was not isolated but joined to the posterior end of the tooth. The feet were functionally 3-toed or reduced to a single digit the weight borne by digit three. See DENTITION

The earliest known mammalian faunas in South America (later Paleocene) contained representatives of both groups of litopterns. By Oligocene and Miocene times the litopterns reached their greatest recorded abundance. The protherioids did not survive the Pliocene and the macraucheniids only the large Macrauchenia survived until Pleistocene time. [Kerr]

Liver

An organ has a territory of all the vertebrates. It is not found in other animals however origin of mollusks function such as the litopterns of crustaceans and invertebrates. The liver and organs of cells through which the blood flows as it returns from the intestine to the heart. It is connected with the intestine by a system of ducts. In the normal adult it is a bilobed organ so that it could be only rarely and its architecture is fixed. It is however an atypical organ the largest gland in the body and has a large number of functions. Among the most important functions is the clearing of the blood by detoxification and phagocytosis. The elimination of waste products the production of auxiliary digestive substances the destruction of bacteria and other substances the production of certain blood plasma components and hormones the production of blood cells in the embryo.

The liver is a small amount of its blood supply directly from the heart through the hepatic artery but the larger part is received from the wall of the gut through the portal vein. This brings with it products of digestion and other substances absorbed through the intestinal mucosa. The portal vein and hepatic artery enter the liver together and both branch repeatedly throughout the liver side by side with the common bile ducts and lymph vessels in the portal canal. These are called accessory canals. The liver is a gland in the sense that it produces and secretes substances which are what large cells in the liver with phagocytosis of cells in the wall. The sinusoids fill the junctions of the hepatic cords and drain the liver into the inferior vena cava. The liver is a large organ and is the largest gland in the body.

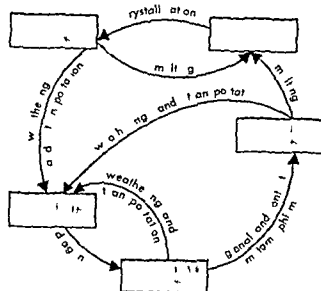


Fig 3 Important features of major geochemical cycle

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After deposition most sediments become buried. They therefore are subjected to higher temperatures and pressures. Under these conditions cementation, loss of porosity, and a certain amount of recrystallization take place, and sandstone, limestone, and shales (the major types of sedimentary rocks) are formed. Such changes are perhaps most pronounced in the case of carbonaceous sediment. Peat becomes dehydrated and passes through the various grades of coal approaching the composition of graphite with increasing depth of burial. See DIAGENESIS.

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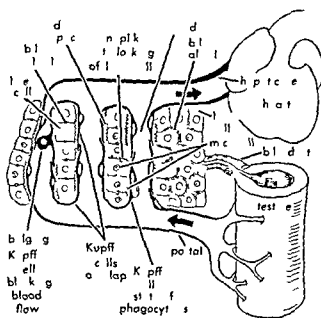


Fig 1 Schematic diagram of the liver as a mass of cells (stippled) based on electron microscopic observations

work of sinusoids. The whole parenchyma is divided into architectural units, the lobules. A lobule is a thumb-shaped mass of cells hexagonal in cross section and drained by a central vein which is a radical of the hepatic vein. Five or six portal canals course along the periphery of the lobule. Between the cells of the hepatic cords or plates are minute ducts, the bile canaliculi, that form a continuous network throughout the lobule and at the portal canals drain into the bile ducts carrying the bile secreted by the cells to the intestine.

EMBRYOLOGY

General theory. According to conventional account the liver arises as a diverticulum from the floor of the foregut. This soon branches into two: the anterior branch destined to form the liver parenchyma and the posterior the cystic duct and gallbladder. Of particular importance is the relationship of the growing liver mass with the large veins that course along it from the yolk sac, allantois, and the posterior part of the body. As the liver grows and meets the vessels, the vessels are penetrated and broken down into a network of small vessels in the spongework of parenchyma. Throughout the embryonic and fetal period, as long as the yolk sac or allantoic circulation persists, channels carry the major part of the blood through the liver mass, but with the cessation of the extraembryonic contributions, the channels, the portal vein, the sinusoid, and the hepatic vein of the adult form remain (see EXTRAEMBRYONIC MEMBRANES). The history of the vessels and their relation to the liver varies greatly in different vertebrates and it explains the variation of venous patterns in adults from form to form as well as the many anomalies found.

The actual form of the liver in the various vertebrates and in individual species implies that it is

extremely plastic. It has been described as a space-filling mass that accommodates itself to the space available. This concept is to a certain extent supported by the changes in shape that may occur as a growing tumor competes for space or as the shape of the space is changed by tightening of a corset. It seems clear that at least from the point of view of function, the history of the vessels and the shape of the liver as a whole is quite irrelevant. As long as the basic pattern of portal vein, sinusoid, and hepatic vein persists, the liver functions normally.

Classical theory. From the point of view of the classical germ layer theory, the liver has three sources of tissue: (1) the parenchyma is endodermal, arising from the floor of the foregut; (2) the sinusoid linings and the hematopoietic cells if present are from the angioblast; (3) connective tissue, particularly in the portal canal, is from the mesenchyme. The surface for the most part is covered by the mesothelium of the peritoneal lining. In recent years, almost every aspect of this point of view has been challenged. It has been asserted that new endothelial lining of the sinusoids and possibly the hematopoietic cells arise in situ from mesenchyme incorporated in the growing liver mass and are thus independent in origin from existing vessels or from the blood island and hence independent of anything corresponding to the angioblast. It has also been asserted on the basis of an extensive review of serially sectioned embryos of a large number of species of all classes of vertebrates that a substantial part of the parenchyma itself may be formed from mesenchyme derived from thickenings of the planchonic mesoderm, much as the adrenal cortex and part of the metanephros are formed. The description of cell origins from static stained sections may lead to a confused and chaotic picture when explanation is difficult and uncertain. On the other hand, the study of cell origins by experimental techniques has proven difficult.

The cell origins of various structures derived from the ectoderm have been extensively studied in the amphibian and avian egg, and the role of interrelations of tissue in induction beautifully demonstrated experimentally. Nothing like this seems to have been demonstrated for structures derived from the endoderm. It seems that in both amphibian and the chick, the structures are self-differentiating from very early stage, perhaps existing as part of the basic pattern of the egg. See FATE MAPS FROM BRYOTIC.

Role of mesenchyme. The question of the contribution of the mesenchyme to the vascular pattern and even to the parenchymal mass of a different sort. The angioblast concept would derive all endothelium from the original blood islands by a process of progressive sprouting. Its validity has been repeatedly and emphatically challenged. There is a little doubt that after the pattern of blood and lymph vessels is definitely established in the embryo, it is definitely asserted that in many parts it

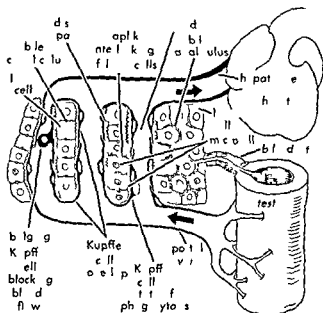


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General theory. According to conventional account the liver arises as a diverticulum from the floor of the foregut. This soon branches into two: the anterior branch destined to form the liver parenchyma and the posterior, the cystic duct and gallbladder. Of particular importance is the relationship of the growing liver mass with the large veins that course along it from the yolk sac, allantois, and the posterior part of the body. As the liver grows and meets the vessels, the vessels are penetrated and broken down into a network of small vessels in the spongework of parenchyma. Throughout the embryonic and fetal period as long as the yolk sac or allantoic circulation persists, channels carry the major part of the blood through the liver mass, but with the cessation of the extraembryonic contributions, the channels close and the portal vein, the sinusoid, and the hepatic vein of the adult form remain (see *EXTRAEMBRYONIC MEMBRANES*). The history of the vessels and their relation to the liver varies greatly in different vertebrates and it explains the variation of venous patterns in adults from form to form as well as the many anomalies found.

The actual form of the liver in the various vertebrates and in individual species implies that it is

extremely plastic. It has been described as a space filling mass that accommodates itself to the space available. This concept is to a certain extent supported by the changes in shape that may occur as a growing tumor competes for space or as the shape of the space is changed by tightening of a corset. It seems clear that at least from the point of view of function, the history of the vessels and the shape of the liver as a whole is quite irrelevant. As long as the basic pattern of portal vein, sinusoid, and hepatic vein persists, the liver functions normally.

Classical theory. From the point of view of the classical "germ layer" theory, the liver has three sources of tissue: (1) the parenchyma is endodermal, arising from the floor of the foregut; (2) the sinusoid linings and the hematopoietic cells if present are from the angioblast; (3) connective tissue, particularly in the portal canals, is from the mesenchyme. The surface for the most part is covered by the mesothelium of the peritoneal lining. In recent years, almost every aspect of this point of view has been challenged. It has been asserted that new endothelial lining of the sinusoids and possibly the hematopoietic cells arise *in situ* from mesenchyme incorporated in the growing liver mass and are thus independent in origin from existing vessels or from the blood island and hence independent of anything corresponding to the angioblast. It has also been asserted on the basis of an extensive review of serially sectioned embryos of a large number of species of all classes of vertebrates that a substantial part of the parenchyma itself may be formed from mesenchyme derived from thickenings of the splanchnic mesoderm, much as the adrenal cortex and part of the metanephros are formed. The description of cell origins from static stained sections may lead to a confused and chaotic picture when explanation is difficult and uncertain. On the other hand, the study of cell origins by experimental techniques has proven difficult.

The cell origins of various structures derived from the ectoderm has been extensively studied in the amphibian and avian egg, and the role of interrelations of tissues in induction beautifully demonstrated experimentally. Nothing like this seems to have been demonstrated for structures derived from the endoderm. It seems that in both amphibians and the chick, the endodermal structures are self-differentiating from very early stages, perhaps existing as part of the basic pattern of the egg. See *FATE MAPS, EMBRYONIC*.

Role of mesenchyme. The question of the contribution of the mesenchyme to the vascular pattern and even to the parenchymal mass is of a different sort. The angioblast concept would derive all endothelium from the original blood islands by a process of progressive sprouting. Its validity has been repeatedly and emphatically challenged. There seems little doubt that after the pattern of blood and lymph vessels is definitely established, new vessels do arise by sprouting from old ones. However, it is definitely asserted that in many parts of

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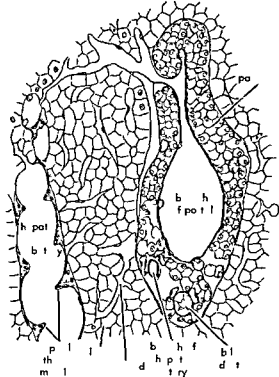


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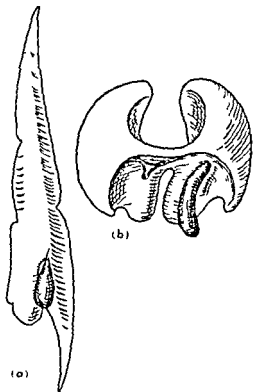


Fig 4 (a) Dorsal aspect of liver of *Amphibaena darwini* lizard (Rev Museo Argentino Ciencias Nat 3165 1957) (b) Liver of *Alligator mississippiensis*

half. During metamorphosis the liver loses its duct system and shrinks to form a ringlike mass behind the pharynx. Among the Selachii the liver is horseshoe shaped and the free ends point caudad. It has a very high fat content. The shape of the liver in the Teleostei undergoes many variations. In many teleost and ganoid species the pancreas is located within the portal canals.

The liver of the caecilians Apoda is divided into numerous lobes which cover each other in a shingle like fashion. They are all connected by a narrow longitudinal bridge. The liver of salamanders and newts Caudata is lobated in some species and unified in others. The liver of the frogs and toads Salientia consists of two large lateral lobes connected by a broad median portion. The liver of the amphibians receives venous blood not only through the portal vein but also from the lower extremities through the abdominal vein.

The unified liver of snake Serpentes and lizards Sauria is adapted to the shape of the body. The liver of turtle Chelonia and crocodiles Crocodylia consists of a right and a left portion connected by a narrow isthmus.

The liver of birds is a rather unified bilobed organ.

Among the mammals with unified livers are the Ruminantia, the Cetacea, and some Hominoidea such as man, the orangutan, chimpanzee, and gibbon, but the gorilla has a lobated liver. The livers of all other mammals the anatomy of which has been recorded are lobated.

In unified livers the hepatic veins run at almost right angles to the portal canals, but in lobated

livers with deep incisions between lobes the large hepatic veins run parallel to the large portal canals and crossing occurs only among the smaller vessels. In lobated livers partial hepatectomy is easy but surgery on unified livers is very difficult.

Among mammals there is a remarkable uniformity in the pattern of branching of the portal and hepatic canals. In spite of differences in external lobation the only basic variation in the vascular pattern is the location of the bifurcation of the common portal vein relative to the origin of the ramus centralis.

HISTOLOGY

The structure of this organ of multiple function is remarkably uniform throughout the phylum of the vertebrates.

General morphology. The liver of all vertebrates, with the exception of adult Petromyzonidae is a

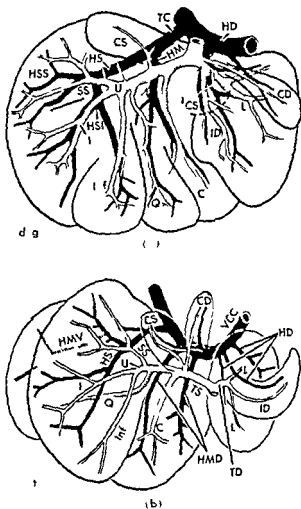
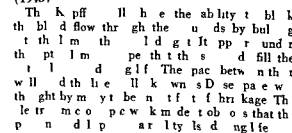


Fig 5 (a) Dorsal aspect of liver of dog (b) Liver of cat. Ramus venae portae C caudalis I intermedus ID infero de ter Inf infero s te L laterals Q quadratus SS superior V vena hepatica HD dextra HM meda HMV ventral division of meda HMD dorsal division of meda HS isthmus HSI sn tae rad inf o HSS tae rad superior Ramuli CD caudatus de ter CS caudatus nite TC tunus commun TU vena portae TD de ter TS snit U pars umbilical VCC vena caudalis for

Fig. 6. Sch. at diag m f th ll l truct f



Liver cells or hepatic cells These are the components of the hepatic muralium. The shape and volume of each hepatic cell depend on its location in the muralium. A cell touching a hole in a liver plate the smallest type may have the shape of a pentahedron with an approximate volume of $10\ 000\ \mu^3$ whereas the cell which is located at the junction of three laminae the large type may have an approximate volume of $35\ 000\ \mu^3$.

The nucleus of the liver cell is spherical and contains a large nucleolus. Some nucleoli are basophilic and others are acidophilic. Small liver cells $10\ 000\text{--}20\ 000\ \mu$ have one nucleus each but larger liver cells may have two or three nuclei. The liver cell contains a pile of electron microscopically demonstrable double membrane the endoplasmic reticulum and peripheral to rod shaped mitochondria with internal double membrane. The liver cells are fastened to each other by club shaped projections of cytoplasm of one liver cell which fit into depressions of the adjacent liver cell in the manner of nails. Another mechanism of holding the liver cell together is provided by the polygonal network of bile canaliculi the canaliculi. Each mesh of this network surrounds a liver cell. Because of the walls of the bile canaliculi are tough this network gives the muralium a strong support. The walls of the bile canaliculi are condensations of exoplasm of the hepatic cell and it appears in electron microgram that through the wall of the bile canaliculi adjacent liver cells are continuous with each other. Microfilaments project into the lumen of the bile canaliculi.

The facet of the liver cells in contact with lacunae is studded with short microvilli. The space between these microvilli is the perisinusoidal space of Disse.

Comparative histology Most lower vertebrates have laminae hepatis predominantly two cell thick the muralium duplex but the mammals and the songbird *Passeriformes* as well as a few lower birds have liver cell plates one cell thick the muralium simplex. In Amphibia there is a mixture of muralium duplex and muralium simplex. The latter is predominant in amphibian larvae.

Minute vascularization The portal venous blood enters into the network of sinusoid through short side branches the inlet venules of small portal vein branches. The inlet venules pierce the limiting plate.

In man the smaller branches or axial distribution veins of the portal vein which are $280\ \mu$ or less in diameter give rise to inlet venules all along their course. The larger ramus or conducting vein $400\ \mu$ and thicker do not give rise to inlet venules. The tissue surrounding them however is very well vascularized by side branches the marginal distributing vein which run parallel to the large veins or surround them spirally. The veins give rise to inlet venules.

In the rat the large portal vein ramus does not give rise to inlet venules and only rarely to marginal distributing veins so that the tissue surround-

ing large portal canal is poorly vascularized. All portal vein branches in the mouse give rise to inlet venules as a result all periportal areas are well vascularized.

In man the sinusoids enter the smallest tributaries of the hepatic or central veins only whereas in the rat and mouse sinusoids enter the hepatic veins of every caliber.

Thus the livers of both man and the mouse are well supplied with portal blood and the liver of the rat possesses areas poorly supplied with portal blood. On the other hand the liver of the rat and mouse are well and evenly drained whereas the drainage of human liver tissue must go through the narrow bottlenecks of the junctions of central veins with sublobular veins.

The hepatic veins of the dog, cat and a few other species are surrounded by spiral muscles which can contract on histamine stimulation. The esophageal muscles play a role in anaphylactic shock. In most animals there are no such muscles.

The hepatic arteries give rise to capillary network around the bile duct. The venous blood from the periductal networks drains into portal inlet venule. Other and more important termination of the hepatic arteries pierce the limiting plate and penetrate to various depths in the liver tissue. They open into sinusoids at all levels between the portal and hepatic canal.

Lymphatics Tissue fluid flows from the spaces of Disse into a tissue space at the periphery of the portal canal. From there it must filter through the connective tissue of the portal canals and through the endothelium of the lymph vessels which are present in great abundance in the portal canal.

In the dog in addition to periportal lymph vessels there is a vast lymphatic plexus around the hepatic veins.

It is obvious that the specific differences in vascularization render the application to man of experimental results obtained in animals somewhat problematic.

Lobules Under normal conditions the sinusoids run radially toward the small tributaries of the hepatic vein. This pattern gives the liver the appearance of lobulation. The center of a hepatic lobule is occupied by a central vein the smallest hepatic vein. The portal canals appear between the lobules and the smaller portal vein branches are sometimes called interlobular veins. The lobulation of the liver is however only an expression of the portohepatic blood pressure gradient for when the blood pressure in the hepatic vein is elevated so that in the portal vein lowered as may happen in diseases such as heart failure and tumors the lobular pattern is reversed. When it is done experimentally by ligation the lobular reversal occurs in 2 minutes. In the case the sinusoids radiate from the portal canal which appears now as centers of lobule. In the pig racoon and pig heart liver cells along plane connecting neighboring portal canals begin to degenerate about a year after birth. In these planes connective

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PHYSIOLOGY

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Liver disorders

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including all of the blood draining from the intestine. See LIVER.

Cirrhosis Cirrho is the term applied to the end stage of carrying of the liver. It may follow repeated minor insults or a single sudden massive injury. The more common causes are nutritional deficiency as shown in the illustration (Laennec or portal cirrhosis), viral infection and injury by chemical agents (poisonous cirrhosis), obstruction of the drainage of bile from the liver (biliary cirrhosis) and prolonged and severe heart failure (congestive or cardiac cirrhosis). Since the use of antibiotics, syphilis has become relatively uncommon as a cause of cirrhosis, at least in those regions where antisyphilitic therapy is available. Because the liver has a large functional reserve, minor degrees of cirrhosis may have little physiological effect. More severe instances of the disease however lead to early death.

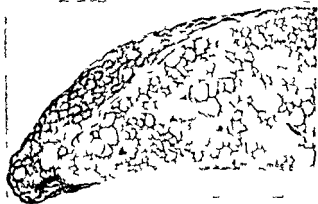
Malnutrition Nutritional disease of the liver is seen particularly after prolonged and excessive use of alcoholic beverages but may occur as a result of malnutrition from any cause and may even develop spontaneously in animals. The dietary deficiency is not a lack of sufficient calories but an inadequacy of a few essential foodstuffs particularly the amino acid choline. Under the conditions, massive amounts of fat first accumulate in the liver cells, enlarging the cells and thickening the liver itself. Such large fatty livers may have impaired function and are unduly susceptible to further injury from many toxic agents to which the liver may be exposed. Sudden unexplained death of many liver cells may occur at this fatty stage, lowering the function of the organ below the level essential for life of the individual. More often the disease progresses insidiously and persistently with the development of fibrous scarring and with disorganized regeneration of liver tissue.

After a period of many months or years, the entire architectural pattern of the liver is distorted

and replaced by small and large nodules of disorganized liver cells separated by bands of epithelial connective tissue. With this progressive fibrosis and distortion, there also occurs significant change in the small blood vessels in the liver, seriously interfering with its blood supply. The small veins draining blood from the liver become narrowed and the flow of blood through the liver is impeded. Because this obstruction increases in the portal veins which carry the blood from the gastrointestinal tract to the liver and new channels develop to carry the blood around rather than through the liver. Particularly important among these latter channels are veins beneath the mucosa of the esophagus (varices) which may become eroded and bleed the source of massive hemorrhage. In late stages of the disease, the amount of blood reaching liver cells may be insufficient to maintain the bare essential function. The patient then dies in hepatic failure with alterations in the blood protein, accumulation of fluid in the body cavities and the accumulation in the blood of toxic metabolic products such as ammonia. See MALNUTRITION, METABOLIC DISORDERS.

Viral infections Viral hepatitis, the most important infectious disease of the liver, may be caused by either of two closely related viruses. The two agents produce identical changes in the liver but differ in their mode of spread and in the latent period between the invasion of the host and the manifestation of disease. In one case the organisms are acquired by the oral route (infected food or water). In the other case they are acquired by the injection of serum from a patient with the disease or carrying the virus. The former disease is called infectious hepatitis, the latter homologous serum hepatitis. Jaundice is the striking clinical feature of viral hepatitis, although other symptoms such as malaise, abdominal pain and loss of appetite may also be distressing. The effects of the virus on the liver are characterized by injury and death (necrosis) of isolated liver cells or groups of liver cells and by an accumulation throughout the liver of large numbers of mononuclear white blood cells. Drainage of bile through the tiniest bile channels, the canaliculi, is impaired and bile accumulates there and in the liver cell themselves. In the more severe case, necrosis of liver cells may be so widespread that death of the patient occurs early in the illness. Usually, however, complete healing occurs after a few weeks with no residual alteration in the structure or function of the organ. In a few instances when the disease is protracted in its course or is associated with severe but nonfatal necrosis, postnecrotic cirrhosis may result. The architecture is then distorted by wide bands of connective tissue and large bizarre nodules of regenerated liver tissue. This postnecrotic cirrhosis is also associated with a curbing of traction and its complication just as is the portal cirrhosis of nutritional liver disease. See JAUNDICE.

Yellow fever is another virus disease affecting the liver. It is spread by certain mosquitoes and



Portal (Laennec's) cirrhosis of the liver. The normal unit form architectural pattern has been destroyed and replaced by large and small nodules of regenerated liver tissue separated by bands and septa of connective tissue. This is the edge of a large slice removed from the liver.

including all of the blood draining from the in
 testine See Liver

Cirrhosis Cirrhosis is the term applied to the

end stage of cirrhosis of the liver It may follow re

peated minor injury or a single sudden massive

injury The more common causes are nutritional

deficiency as shown in the illustration (Laennec's

or portal cirrhosis) viral infections and injury by

chemical agents (poisonous cirrhosis) obstruct

tion of the drainage of bile from the liver (biliary

cirrhosis) and prolonged and severe heart failure

(congestive or cardiac cirrhosis) Since the use of

antibiotic drugs has become relatively uncommon

as a cause of cirrhosis at least in this country

regions where antisyphilitic therapy is available be

cause the liver has a large functional reserve

minor degrees of cirrhosis may have little physio

logical effect More severe instances of the disease

however lead to early death

Malnutrition Nutritional disease of the liver is

seen particularly after prolonged and excessive

use of alcoholic beverages but may occur as a re

sult of malnutrition from any cause and may even

develop spontaneously in animals The dietary de

ficiency is not a lack of sufficient calories but

an inadequacy of a few essential foodstuffs par

ticularly the amino acid choline Under the con

ditions massive amounts of fat fat accumulation in

the liver cells enlarging the cells and the liver it

self Such large fatty livers may have impaired

function and are unduly susceptible to further

injury from many toxic agents to which the liver

may be exposed Sudden unexplained death of

many liver cells may occur at this fatty stage

lowering the function of the organ below the level

essential for life of the individual More often the

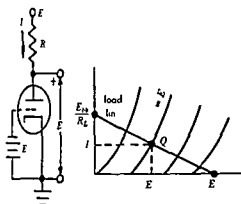
diets as progresses insidiously and persistently with

the development of fibrous scarring and with dis

organized regeneration of liver tissue

After a period of many months or years the en

tire architectural pattern of the liver is distorted



Load line d n pl te-c r r t h c t t c s

load line d n pl te-c r r t h c t t c s

load line d n pl te-c r r t h c t t c s

load line d n pl te-c r r t h c t t c s

Load line d n pl te-c r r t h c t t c s

load line d n pl te-c r r t h c t t c s

of l ding ne ded for r onance A an example
p ct cally ll to rad ha e load ng coil n
th nt nna c t b cau e the us al whip antenna
i much t h r t f r b adca t band freq e c s
S ANTENNA (AERIAL) [J MR]

Loading transverse

F ces appl d perp dicul ly to the l ngitud n l
axis of a member Tran er load g cau e the
m mber t bend a d deffe t f m it ginal p i
t with nte nalt t ile a d compres e t a s
ac mpany gchang neur tre

Co cent ted loads ar ppl d o er a eas
le gths wh h a e elatly small c mp red to
the d men o f the memb A gle r ult t
fo ce ued t an lyze eff ts n the m mbr
E mpl s are hea y m ch n occ py ng l mit d
floo area whe ll ds n a rail r a tie od t
tached loc lly Lo d may be t ion ry r they
m y b mo t g as with the ca g f c a c
h to with r k whe l

D t but d lads ef ces ppl d c nt u ly
e l ge ar s with u form non nif rm n
te ty Cl ely ta k d c tent o wa ho e
floors now o w nd pre ur are u if rm load
A eq lent iform l ad m y epre e t m l tiple
cl ly p ed n e tr ted load Variably d-
tr but d l ad ten tie n l de foundat n oil
p es es and hyd o t t c p e

Bending and shear T an r fo es p d e
b d i g m m t d tr sv e hear ng f ces t
e y ct wh hm t he b l ced by n te al
c ple e t i g m ment M nd an ter l
tang tal he fo l (Fig 1) The e c m
p n t f res e e l t d by fee-body a ly
Th b d i g m me t a d r ult nt hea fo e
an b expe d a lyt ally a f nct n of the
load a d th d t n lo t i g th t i n f o m a

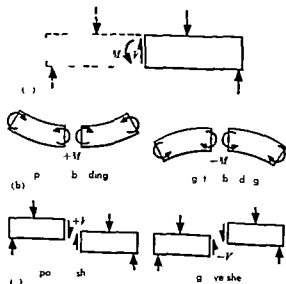


Fig 1 B m load g ly s. () By f b dy n l
y f b m (b) Co t f g f b e d g
() C t f g f h

cause death by the massive replacement of functioning hepatic tissue by nonfunctioning tumor tissue. The liver is probably the most common location for the secondary spread of neoplasms. It is the growth of these metastatic tumor nodules in the liver which is the ultimate cause of death in many individuals with cancer of the bowel, breast, lung, or other tissues. See NEOPLASIA ONCOLOGY

[M R H]

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Living fossils

Living species belonging to ancient stocks otherwise known only as fossils. They commonly reveal anatomical structures and phylogenetic relationship that at best could only be inferred from the fossils. A good example is the mollusk *Neopilina galathea* dredged from the floor of the Pacific Ocean in 1951. Its known ancestors (family Tryblididae) occur in early Paleozoic rocks and were inferred to have been very primitive snails having bilateral symmetry and thus representing a stage preceding the torsion that characterizes all other gastropods. The living species prove this inference to be correct but its segmented body also shows that this group constitutes a new class more primitive than the other mollusk ancestral to both the chitons and the gastropods and in turn related to the annelid worms. See MONOPLACOPHORA

Other examples are the horseshoe crab *Limulus*, the opossum *Didelphus*, the coelocanth fish *Lampris* discovered off the east coast of Africa in 1939 and such plants as *Metasequoia* discovered in China in 1941 and the *Cynoglossus* whose ancestors thrived with the dinosaurs. See MARSUPIALIA XIPHOSURA

[C O D]

Lizard

Any of about 3000 species of reptile of the suborder Lacertilia order Squamata. Lizards are found in temperate and hot climates throughout the world. Typically they are covered with epidermal scales, have moderately elongated bodies, a tapering tail, and two pairs of strong legs on which they run swiftly. Most lizards are terrestrial but many are arboreal and several are fossorial or aquatic. Degeneration of the limbs has progressed in different groups and a few forms are legless.



The fence lizard *Sceloporus undulatus* length to 5 1/2 in (From E L Palmer *Feldbook of Natural History* McGraw Hill 1949)

cluding one common species in the United States the glass snake or joint snake.

Many lizards are feared as being poisonous but this is true only of the Gila monster and its close relative the Mexican beaded lizard. There are both carnivorous and herbivorous species. They may lay eggs or produce living young.

Lizards are well represented in the United States especially in the South and Southwest. Among the more common are the genus *Sceloporus* represented in the eastern states by the fence lizards, the genus *Cnemidophorus* best known of which is the swiftly moving six-lined lizard, the horned toads, skinks, the American chameleon, and the big Gila monster and chuckwalla of the desert. See CHAMELEON CHUCKWALLA GECKO GILA MONSTER HORNED TOAD SKINK SQUAMATA [J D B]

Llama

An animal allied to the camel and having many of its characteristics but being about one-third its size. The llama is the traditional burden carrier in the higher parts of the Andes Mountains in South America; therefore it has not been bred primarily for its fleece. Its hair fiber generally coarser and brownish in color is valued because it may be mixed with the hair of the alpaca, an animal of the same species that is raised for its fleece alone. Some noils are obtained from the undercoat of the llama.



The llama *Lama pacos* length 4 ft (From P M Duane ed *Cassell's Natural History of the Camelids*)

When llama hair is part of a blend of fibers it gives exquisite natural colors found in fine fabric. Such llama fiber mixtures have a characteristic high inelastic property with little weight. They are used for high quality coat fabrics to take advantage of the quality of wrinkle resistance, fastness of color, and extreme durability. See ALPACA CAMEL'S HAIR CASHMERE MOHAIR WOOL see also ARTIODACTYLA FIBER NATURAL [M D P]

Load line

A line drawn on the characteristic curves of a vacuum tube used to determine the operating range and the quiescent point (the operating point for zero signal input voltage). This graphical determination is necessary because the mathematical func-

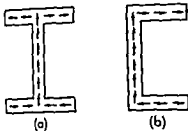


Fig. 4. Shear flow (a) in I-beam (b) in channel

hearing stresses are the stresses of the tangent at each point distributed over a beam section. At a point in the beam the vertical and longitudinal stresses are equal. They are equal to the boundary stresses and maximum at the neutral axis. The shear stresses according to the elementary theory of shear is $S = VQ/Ib$ where V is the total shear force, Q is the static moment of the neutral axis of the area above the beam element between the level of the tangent and the top of the beam section, I is the moment of inertia, and b is the width. In rectangular sections the distribution is parabolic and maximum S is at the center of the beam.

Shear flow is the shear force per unit length along a beam element. The concept of shear flow is derived from the distribution of shear stresses represented by vectors pointing in the same direction along the median line of the beam and the similarity of the expressions for the shear flow in the pipe channel (see also Torsion). The effects of shear force on the typical structural shapes are shown in Fig. 4.

Deflection. A beam is said to deflect when the displacement is normal to the original axis. Deflection is due to the curvature produced by load. Deflection may be limited to less than the structural safety in buildings to avoid cracking the ceiling or in machinery because of excessive vibration.

Elastic curves are the shape of the longitudinal axis of a beam under load. The deflection is only a function of the load and the properties of the beam. Deflection at any point is a function of the load and the properties of the beam.

Radius of curvature depends on the moment and the properties of the beam and is constant when the beam is subjected to a constant bending moment. Curvature is the rate of change of the slope of the beam with respect to the horizontal.

Statically indeterminate beam. In the presence of more than two supports the beam is statically indeterminate. The first step in the analysis is to determine the reactions. The reactions are determined by the conditions of static equilibrium.

The curvature of the beam is determined by the load and the properties of the beam.

ports. In simply supported beam only vertical displacement is prevented at the supports while when the beam is fixed rotation is also prevented at the ends. Similarly beam with overhanging ends and beam continuous over multiple supports are partially restrained. In the case of the boundary conditions of the beam the conditions imposed by the supports in the solution of the beam differential equation for the elastic curve form the relations between the loads, reactions, moments and properties of the beam. During elastic behavior these relations together with the equations of statics are all that is needed to determine the elastic behavior of the beam caused by plastic deformations. The critical section of high flexural stress when the yield point of the material is exceeded. When a fully plastic condition is reached the section acts as a plastic hinge, with constant bending moment during unloading. The known moment at supports or intermediate points permit determination of the reactions by the equations of statics. A table is given of the plastic design of plastic design.

Unsymmetrical bending. Loads that produce bending moments in planes oblique to the principal axes of a section cause unsymmetrical bending. Components of the applied moment produce curvature and deflection in planes perpendicular to the axes of the section produced by these components acting separately and be superimposed. To avoid this situation the resultant of the forces must pass through either the geometric center of symmetry or the centroid of a part of the section. The shear center for unsymmetrical sections.

Lateral buckling of beams is caused by instability of the compression flange which results in lateral deflection and twist of the beam. The tendency to buckle of beams is determined by the critical load. The critical load is the load at which buckling occurs. The critical load depends on the dimensions of the beam, the material properties, and the boundary conditions. The critical load is determined by the Euler's formula for columns.

Buckling of beam webs is caused by the compression of the webs. The buckling of the webs is determined by the critical load. The critical load is determined by the Euler's formula for columns. The critical load is determined by the Euler's formula for columns.

Vibrations of beams are determined by the properties of the beam and the load. The natural frequency of vibration is determined by the properties of the beam and the load.

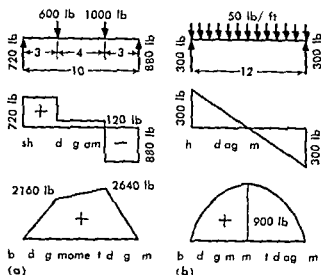


Fig 2 Typical shear and moment diagrams for (a) concentrated loads and (b) uniformly distributed load

reference origin. The magnitude and distribution of internal stresses associated with the external force system are found by the theory of flexure.

Bending moment diagram. A graphical representation shows the bending moment produced at all sections of a member by a specified loading. The bending moment is the sum of the moments of external forces acting to the left of the section, taken about the section. The sign of the curvature is related to the sign of the bending moment (Fig 1b).

Typical bending moment and shear diagrams are shown in Fig 2 for concentrated and uniformly distributed loads on a simply supported beam. The reactions and moments are found for equilibrium (see Statics).

Shear diagram. A graphic representation of the transverse shearing force at all sections of a beam produced by specified loading is called a shear diagram. The shear at any section is equal to the sum of the forces on a segment to the left of the section considered (Fig 1c). Positive shears are produced by upward forces (Fig 2).

Relationships between shear and bending moment that assist in construction of diagrams are (1) maximum moment occurs where shear is zero, (2) area in the shear diagram equals change of bending moment between sections, (3) ordinate in the shear diagram equals slope of moment diagram, and (4) shear is constant between concentrated loads and has constant slope for uniformly distributed loads. Combined loading can be represented by conventional composite moment diagrams or by separate diagrams called diagrams by parts.

Beams. Members subjected to bending by transverse loads are classed as beams. The span is the unsupported length. Beams may have single or multiple spans and are classified according to kind of support, which may permit freedom of rotation or furnish restraint (Fig 3).

The degree of restraint at supports modifies the stresses, curvature, and deflection. A beam is statically determinate when all reaction components can be evaluated by the equations of statics. Two equations are available for transverse loads and only two reaction components can be found. Fixed end and continuous beams are statically indeterminate and additional load deformation relationships are required to supplement statics.

Bending stresses are the internal tensile and compressive longitudinal stresses developed in response to curvature induced by external load. Their magnitudes depend on the bending moment and the properties of the section. The theory of flexure assumes elastic behavior. No stresses act along a longitudinal plane surface within the beam, called the neutral surface. A segment subjected to constant bending moment, as when bent by end couples, is in pure bending and stresses vary linearly across the section, which remains plane. Simultaneous shear causes warping and nonlinear stress distribution. The stress is maximum at boundary surfaces of sections where bending moment M is greatest. Maximum stress S at distance c from the neutral axis to the extreme element of a section having a moment of inertia I is $S = Mc/I = M/Z$, where $Z = I/c$ is called the section modulus, a measure of the section depending upon shape and dimensions. Greatest economy results when the section provides the required section modulus with least area. The common theory of flexure applies only to elastic stresses. Stresses exceeding the elastic limit involve plastic strains producing permanent deflections upon load removal.

Inelastic stresses are first produced at surface elements of sections resisting maximum moment. A distinct yield point in materials such as structural grade steel causes stresses near the surface to remain constant while interior stresses increase with increasing load. Redistribution of stress continues until the entire section behaves plastically. The fully plastic resisting moment of a standard I section is about 15% greater than the moment just producing yield point at the surface. Where small increases in deflection can be tolerated, this plastic hinge moment is used in design.

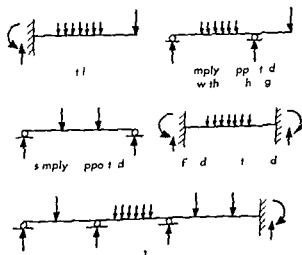


Fig 3 Types of beam

increased by a uniformity of stress and ductility. Capacity to dissipate energy overloads by plastic deformation is desirable in members subject to shock impact. See STRESS AND STRAIN

[W J KR]

Loads repeated

Forces repeated many times causing varying stresses as the load changes. Repeated loads exist in crank shafts, axle pins, piston rods, rails, and members, and many other machine and structural elements. Repeated loads usually smaller than similarly applied static loads cause failure by fatigue. See fatigue. Designs for repeated loads depend on the maximum value of repeated stress, the material characteristics, the fatigue strength, and the magnitude of localized stress concentration (see STRESS CONCENTRATION).

Cycle of stress. The variation of stress during typical life of a member under repeated loading and unloading or when the load fluctuates continuously from time to time. The stress is a cycle (as illustrated). A fluctuating or pulsating stress varies between a minimum and maximum values of the same magnitude. The condition is called repeated if the stress does not cross zero in each cycle. Repeated stresses arise between loads of positive and negative values, and when the positive stresses are uniaxial and completely reversed by the opposite stress, a cycle.

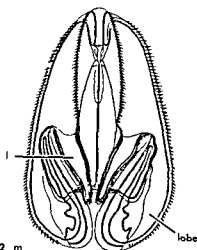
Stress variation is described either by the maximum stress, the peak (tension or compression) and the range of fluctuation, or by the mean and the stress range. The magnitude of the permanent imposed alternating stress produces the plastic strain. Repeated loading imposed on a constant load, the stress is added to the true stress range of fluctuation without reversal. The high and low parts of the load are subjected to the reversed type of cyclic loading which may be called a flexural stress in the life of the member.

Stress raisers. Due to local changes in the distribution of stress, other conditions causing local

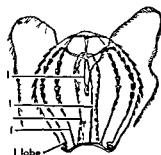
increased turbulence of the normal stress distribution with the reaction of stress that normally produced a concentrated stress raiser. The maximum stress is called a stress concentration. High local stresses exist at bolt threads, abrupt changes in diameter, notches, holes, keyways, or fillet welds. Internal discontinuities such as blowholes, inclusions, seams, cracks, defects, and knots, notches, and voids in concrete and variable thicknesses of component of structure cause stress concentrations. At point of contact of ball or roller bearings, gear teeth, or other local load applications, the stress may be greatly increased. Maximum stress is obtained by multiplying the nominal stress computed with the regard to the modification of the stress raiser by a stress concentration factor. This factor is found experimentally and depends on the type of discontinuity and the proportion of the material under static load. Ductile materials relieve most of the stress concentration by plastic yielding. Stress raisers are not a barrier to failure under high stress rates and low temperature, which tend to inhibit plastic flow and are of great importance under repeated loads which produce progressive failure due to fatigue failure. [W J KR]

Lobata

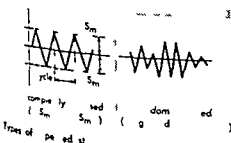
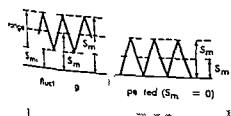
An order of the Ctenophora, which the body is helmet shaped. A pair of large lobes, the pedicels, extend from the oral groove in the pharyngeal



Life cycle of the Lobata (M. m. p. l. d.)



beginning of loop of pharynx



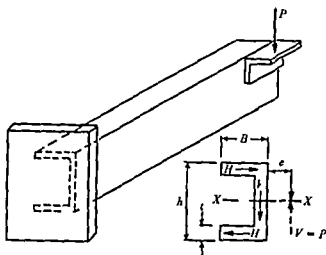


Fig 5 Shear center

all sections and the beam is said to have constant strength. Dimensions of the section can be varied by tapering the width and depth or by adding cover plates to a built-up section to vary the section modulus. Common examples of beams with variable section are tapered cantilevers, plate girder with multiple cover plate, forgings and other machine elements. A leaf spring is a tapered beam in which uniform stress increases energy absorption.

Shear center A point on a line parallel to the axis of a beam through which any transverse force must be applied to avoid twisting of the section is called the center of twist or shear center. A beam section twists when the resultant of the internal shearing forces is not in the same plane as the externally applied shear. The shear center can be found by locating the resultant of the internal shear forces. A channel section has one axis of symmetry and is subject to twisting. The external shear passes through a point located e from the center of the web so that $e = Bh t / 4I$ approximately, where B is flange width, h is depth of section, t is thickness and I is moment of inertia about the symmetrical axis (Fig 5).

Beams on elastic foundation are members subjected to transverse load while resting either on a continuous supporting foundation or on closely spaced supports which behave elastically. The curvature, deflection and bending moment depend upon the relative stiffness of the beam and supporting foundation. Beams of this type include railroad rails on ties, a timber resting on level ground, a long pipe supported by closely spaced hanger rods or springs and a concrete footing on a soil foundation. The unknown reactive force per unit length of beam is assumed to be proportional to the deflection, and the solution of this statically indeterminate problem requires derivation of the equation of the elastic curve whose differential equation is $EI(d^4y/dx^4) = -ky$ where k is the spring constant per unit length of support and ky is the elastic force exerted per unit length of beam. Solution of this equation determines the distribu-

tion of reactive forces from which the shear and moments can be found. See STRENGTH OF MATERIALS [W J K R].

Loads, dynamic

A force exerted by a moving body on a resisting member is called a dynamic or energy load. Loads suddenly applied with appreciable striking velocity, as when a falling weight strikes another body, are called impact loads. Such loads are produced by moving machine parts, cars on a bridge, airplane landing shock, falling weights and other nonstationary loading conditions where forces are applied in relatively short time intervals. Dynamic load is expressed in terms of the amount of energy transferred or by an equivalent static load which has the same stress-producing effect on the member.

Impact or load factor is the measure of the increased static load required to produce the same stress as the dynamically applied load. It is thus the ratio of the equivalent static load to the weight of the moving body. Impact affects both the magnitude of the stress and the properties of the material. Increased strain rates associated with impact increase the elastic and ultimate strength.

Elastic behavior If a material or structure has sufficient elastic energy capacity as a resisting member to absorb completely the energy load through elastic action and recover completely from the deformation, it behaves elastically (see SHOCK ABSORBER). Elastic stresses associated with stored strain energy depend on the kind of deformation produced. Part of the kinetic energy is dissipated by deformation of connection, friction and inertia effect.

Dynamic stresses and deformations can be found by equating externally applied energy to the internal strain energy expressed in terms of stresses and dimensions. Dynamic force produced by weight W falling through height h onto a beam or spring is approximately

$$P_d = W + W \sqrt{1 + \frac{2h}{\Delta_i}(c)}$$

where Δ_i is elastic deflection due to gradual application and c is an inertia correcting factor. Stresses and deflection are found by expressions of the same form.

Inelastic behavior An energy load exceeding the elastic energy capacity of the member produces inelastic deformation. For a known amount of energy, the dynamic load and deformation can be found approximately from the boundaries of the area under a statically determined load deformation curve which represents absorbed energy. Similarly, the inelastic stress produced by impact or the dimensions necessary to limit the stress can be found from areas in the static stress-strain curve.

Toughness is the energy absorbed per unit volume when the material is stressed to fracture and is represented by the total area under the stress-strain diagram. Ability to store strain energy is in-

caused by uniform stress and density. Caution to dissipate energy of loads by plastic deformations is desirable in members subject to work under stress. [W.J.K.R.]

Loads, repeated

Forces applied many times causing varying stresses as the load changes. Repeated loads exist in machine shafts, axles, spring parts, rods, rails, bridge members, and many other machine and structural elements. Repeated loads are considerably smaller than similarly applied static loads cause failure by progressive fracture. Designs for repeated stress depend on the maximum value of repeated stress, such as the material constant called the fatigue strength, and the magnitude of localized stress concentrations (see STRESS CONCENTRATION).

Cycle of stress. The variation of stress during a typical fluctuation when the load is repeatedly applied and removed when the load fluctuates continuously from tension to compression is a stress cycle (as illustrated). A fluctuating load is a stress varies between maximum and minimum values of the same sign; this condition is called repeated stress. Reversed stress is a stress cycle in which the stress reverses between tension and compression. Reversed stress is partly reversed when the positive stresses are equal and completely reversed when the positive and negative stresses are equal.

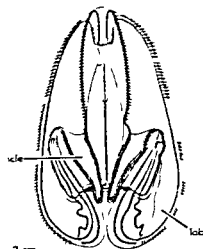
Stress analysis is described either by the maximum stress, its kind (tension or compression) and the range of fluctuation, or by the mean or tensile stress together with the magnitude of the superimposed alternating or producing the cyclic variation. Repeated load is superimposed on a constant load, such as dead weight of the structure, produce fluctuation with out reversal. Engine crankshafts and parts, rails and axles are subjected to the reversed-type cyclic loading, which is in millions of repetitions in the life of the member.

Stress raisers. Dimensional changes internal discontinuities, the conditions such as local

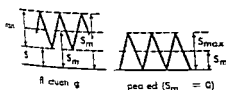
ized disturbance of the normal stress distribution, which increase stress over that in small produced, are termed stress raisers. The maximum stress is called stress concentration. High local stresses exist at bolt threads, abrupt change of shaft diameter, notches, holes, keyways, rivet welds. Internal discontinuities such as blowholes, inclusion seams, cracks, defects and knots in wood, and in concrete and variable stiffness of composite materials cause stress concentrations. At points of contact of ball or roller bearings, gear teeth, and other local load applications, the stress may be greatly increased. Maximum stress is obtained by multiplying the nominal stress computed without regard to the modifying effect of the stress raiser by stress concentration factor. This factor of uncertainty experimentally depends on the type of discontinuity and the properties of the material under static load. DuPont material relieves most of the stress concentration by plastic yielding. Stress raisers contribute to failure under high stress rates and low temperatures which tend to inhibit plastic flow and are of great importance under repeated loads which produce progressive fracture, called fatigue failure. [W.J.K.R.]

Lobata

An order of the Ctenophora in which the body is helmet-shaped. A pair of large lobe-shaped processes extend from the oral end in the pharyngeal

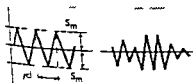


Lobata (Ctenophora) showing internal structures.



fluctuating

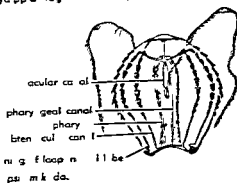
repeated ($S_m = 0$)



completely reversed ($S_{max} = S_m$)

partially reversed (range of stress varies)

Types of stress fluctuations



plane. A pair of auricles are attached to the base of each process. The body is compressed with the tentacular axis being shorter than the pharyngeal axis. The ribs are of unequal length with the longest being the subpharyngeal pairs. The primary tentacles are degenerate and are replaced by secondary tentacles. The canal system is complex. Examples of this order include *Bolinopsis*, *Ocyropsis*, *Mnemiopsis*, *Leucothea*. See CTENOPHORA. TENACULATA [T K]

Lobster

A name usually limited to a member of the family Homaridae, order Decapoda, class Crustacea, phylum Arthropoda. The family includes nine genera of which only one is represented in American waters by a single species, *Homarus americanus*, the American lobster.

This species is the common lobster of commerce. It is a valuable animal supporting an important fishery in the New England states. The annual catch has exceeded 100,000,000 lb but due to depletion it has been much less in recent years. For example, in 1954 the total catch was only 27,000,000 lb, 1,000,000 lb coming from the middle Atlantic states and the remainder from New England. Depletion has been caused primarily by overfishing and by catching lobsters before they could reproduce. Lobsters must now be returned to the water unless they are over 12 in. long or have freed the first generation of young.

Lobsters are essentially like the fresh water crayfishes in their structure, differing mainly in size. The average American lobster is a little over a foot in length and weighs about 2 lb. The record specimen weighed over 28 lb and was 2 ft long. Lobsters are usually dark green with darker spots and yellowish beneath. The animal turns red only after it has been boiled.

Like the crayfish, the female carries her eggs under her abdomen until they hatch. A 15 in. female may carry as many as 100,000 eggs at a time. Mating occurs some time before egg deposition usually in the spring with the eggs being liberated early in the summer. The young resemble their parents in form. They undergo about 25 molts before

attaining sexual maturity at 5 years of age. The female frees her first brood of young when she is 6 years old and produces a new brood every other year thereafter.

In recent years the shortage of the American lobster on the market has brought the spiny lobsters of the family Palinuridae into commercial prominence. There are two commercially important species: the California spiny lobster *Panulirus interruptus* on the Pacific Coast and the sea crawfish *P. argus* on the Atlantic Coast. The latter is a southern form found from the Carolinas southward and in the Gulf of Mexico. Together these animals produce about 3,000,000 lb of food annually, about two thirds of which comes from the eastern species. Both species are 8 in. or more in length and are identified by the strong spines on the carapace. See CRAYFISH. DECAPODA (CRUSTACEA) [D B]

Location fit

Mechanical sizes of mating parts such that when assembled they are accurately positioned in relation to each other. Locational fits are intended only to determine the orientation of the parts. For normally stationary parts that require ease of assembly or disassembly for parts that fit snugly and for parts that move yet fit closely as in pigots, slight clearance is provided between parts. Where accuracy of location is important, transition fits are used. In these fits the holes and shafts are normally nearly the same diameter. For greater accuracy of location the shafts are made slightly larger than the holes; such fits are termed location interference fits. See ALLOWANCE. [P H B]

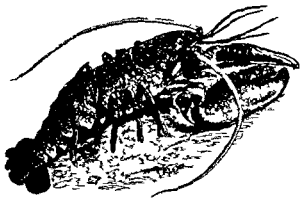
Locomotive

A vehicle supported on wheels, capable of self-propulsion by converting heat or electric energy into mechanical power for the purpose of moving railway cars over rails. It may be powered by steam, compressed air, electricity, oil, or gas from volatile oils.

A locomotive consists of a power plant for generating energy, a storage compartment for fuel, a transmission system for converting energy into mechanical power, a system of controls for governing the power developed, a braking system for reducing the speed of the train, and auxiliaries for lighting, heating systems for passenger trains, warning systems and devices for increasing unit efficiency. The three general classes are passenger, freight, and switcher.

Passenger locomotives are designed for high speed, fast acceleration, and light loads. The steam locomotive has large diameter driving wheels (69-84 in.); electric motor-driven units have low gear ratios.

For freight service, locomotives are designed with slower speed and acceleration than passenger locomotives to pull heavy loads. Steam locomotives use smaller diameter driving wheels (63-70 in.); electric motor-driven units have higher reduction gear ratios.



Lobster *Homarus americanus*, its length is to 2 ft. (From P. M. Duncan and Cassell's Nat. History Cassell)



Fig. 1 Mod m team posse gr l m t d el ps
active float f 80 000 lb pl d l gth f g e
d tender 109 ft 1 tol w ght 872 600 lb (N
S&W st R d w y)

Flexibility: of first importance n a l o m i e
which s e r e l t m u t m e a s l y i n e i t h e r
direction, be able to negotiate h r p u r v e s h a e
p o o d o l e a r a n e f r m o m e n t i y a r d s a n d i n
l a s t r a l a a s, d p r i d e g o o d b i l i t y f o r t h e
m a g n e t i c

Steam locomotive This type c n t f two
main parts co n e c t e d b y a a r t u l e d j o i n t. The
t e n d e r a t t a m n t e d o d d l e r w h e e l t h e
a h, f e b o x, a d b o l r l o c a t e d t h e m i n f a m e
r u n t e d t h e d r o w h e e l s (F i g 1) I n a n
a r t i c u l a t e d t y p e l o c o m o t i v e, t h e m i n f a m e r i s
o v e r s e p a r a t e d r e g u l a t o r s.

Steam is generated a fire t b e b i l r u s i n g
c o a l o r o i l f o r f e l. H t f o m t h e f i r e b o x p s e s
t h r o u g h b o u l e t b e s (F i g. 2) h a t g w a t e r t o p r o
d u c e s t e a m, h h p s e s t h r o u g h c o n t r o l l a s
i n t o t h e m a i n c y l i n d r w h e r i t a c t s p n t h e
d r o w i n g p a t. E a h p t o i s o n e c t e d t h r o u g h
t h e c r o s s h e d d d r i g r o d t o t h d r i n g
b e l t s, b h e c o n n e c t e d t o e h t h e b y s d e
r o d s. T h o d n e c t i o n i s i f f t h e w h e e l c e n t e r
f o r m i n g l i n e s t h a t t h e l r m e n e n t f i t h e
p u s s e s t h e h e l t o r o t a t e a d m o t h e
l o c o m o t i v e.

Loc m i t e e d t r o l l e d b y a t h o t t l e
h i c h s r o t h e a m t f t e a m e t e i n g t h e
l e a d e r t e t i m e, a n d t h t o f f l e w h i c h
d e r m i n e s t h t u r n i n g. T h s e l s a i t e n
t o d t h t h s h e d t h e b y t m n g t h r
n i n g a n d l g t t h r m m t o f t h e p t o n
T h e l o c o m o t i v e e v e r e d b y m h a n m t h a t



Fig. 2 F i o f h o t m b y p d t f m t b f
l o c o m o t i v e b o i l t h g h m k h t d p r k

change the flow f team to the pp site end f
the p i t n y l i n d r

Coal i fed i n t t h e f i r e f x l y f a n d o r a t m a t i c
s t o k e r I n o i f e r e d l o c m t i v e o i l i f r e d i n
t h o u g h n z z l e s. W a t e r i s f r e d i n t o t h e b i l e r b y
a n i n j e c t r t h o u g h a c h e c k v a l e t a t p r e e n t s t h e
s t e a m f r m b a k i n g p. T h e e f f e n c y o f t h e t e a m
e n g i n e i n c r e a s e d b y s c h e a t i n g t h e w a t e r b e f o r e
i t e n t e r s t h e l e l e r a d u p e r h e a t i n g t h e t e a m b e f o r e
i t e n t e r s t h e c y l i n d e r s

Electric locomotive This l o c m t i v e c o n v e r t
e l e c t r i c e n e r g y i n t o m e c h a n i c a l e n e r g y
f o r c e t h r o u g h i t s e l e t r i c m o t o r s. I t h a t h e a d
a t a g e o f p e r a t i n g f r m a n e n r g y s u r c e t h a t i s
l i m i t e d o n l y b y t h e r a t i n g o f t h e e l e t r i c t r a n m i s
s i o n s y s t e m. C r e e t i s p i c k e d u p b y t h i r d r a i l
h o s o r e r h a d p a t g r a p h a n d i t e i t h e r u s e d
d i r e c t l y b y t h m t r s o r i s o n e r t e d b y t r a n s
f o r m e r m t r l i t e n a t o r s o r r e c t i f i e r t o a f r m
u s a b l e b y t h e m (F i g 3)

The power is determined by the number a d
c h a r a c t e r i s t i c o f t h e e l e c t r i c m o t o r s. I t a l l y t h e
m t r a m t u r w a m u t d o n t h e a x l e n o w t h e
m t r f u g i n t h e t r a k a n d g a r e d t h e a x l e
b y a p i n o g e r n t h e a r m a t u r e h a f t a n d b u l l
g e a r n t h e a x l e. S t a r t i n g a n d a c c e l e r a t o n r e q u i r e
h i g h c r n t p e d r e q u i r e h i g h t a g e

Locomoti p e e d i c n t r l l e d t h r o u g h m t r
t r n t i n a d b y m u l t i p l e t e p r t o r s. A t h e
p e e d i n e a s t h c u r r e n t d r o p s r e q u i r i n g h i g h e r
o l t a g e w h i c h s b a i e d b y c u t t i n g o t r e i t n e
n d b y t n s t i n. T r a s t o n i c c o m p l i e d b y
o p e n i n g a n d c l o s i n g p o w e r t a c t r s t o f r m
e e s e s p a r a l l e l r f u l l p a r l l l m o t o r c i r
c u t. M a x i m u m p e e d i l m i t e d b y m o r c o
t r u t i o a d g e a r a t. T h e l m t e s r e c e d
b y r e r e n g t h e f l o w f c u r r e n t t h o u g h t h e m t r
f i l d s. A n a d a n t g e o f l e c t r i c p o w e r e d l m o
t o i s t h i t t w o r m u n i t a n b e o p e r a t e d n
m u l t i p l e b y e w b y t a i l i n g t h e i r c o n t r o l
r i t t h u m u l t i p l y i n g t h e r p w r f o r h e a y
t a i a n d t e p g r d e

E l e t c t r m i o n a l s o l e n d s t e l f t d y n a m i c
r e g n r t i e b a k g t h r i t a r e c h g e d t o
m a k e g e n e r a t i o n f o r t h e m o t o r w h i c h p u m p u r r e n t
b a c k t o t h e l i n e o d s p a t t h r l o a d i n f o r c d
i o l e d r e s t r s

Diesel locomotive A i a b l p e e d d e l n
g i n w h h b u n s f u l o l p w r s t h i s l c m o t o e
T h e g e t y p e u u l l y u d r e f o u r c y c l e
V t y p e f u c y l e h e t w o c y c l e V t y p e a n d
p p e d p t n t y p. T h e y r a n g e n e f r m 150-
2400 h p h i g h e r h o r p o w e r u n t s r e q u i p p e d
w i t h b l w e s p e h a r g e. S p e e d o f t h e n
g e c t l l e d b y t g e n w h h m a s u
t h q t t y f f e l l e c t d n t t h e c y l i n d e r t h
t h i t l e m e h a m i l i n k d t t h g r n o. S e
l t y p f t m n e n g e a l u s e g a
h y d r u l c n d l t r

G t s m i s H t h d l s n t e d
t h d g w h e e l t h o u g h t a m i s s o f
h a g e b l e g e a t s t h t p d e f r e g
d h n g g t h e p e e d f t h u n t.

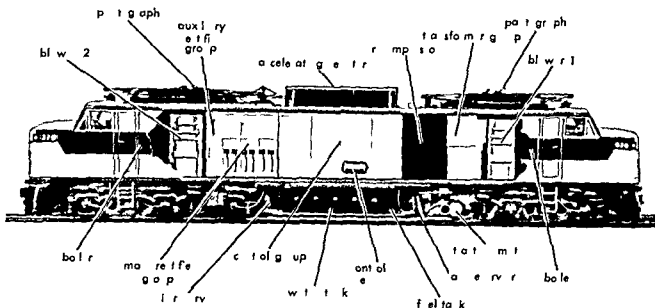


Fig 3 Rectifier type electric locomotive for passenger and freight service has maximum speed of 90 mph

68 ft long weighs 348 000 lb and develops 4000 hp
(General Electric Co.)

Hydraulic transmission Here the diesel engine is connected by universal drive shafts to the hydraulic transmission system mounted on the truck between the two driving wheels. One type is an automatic gear shift mechanism with a disengaging torque converter. It provides four speeds forward and reverse.

Diesel electric locomotive By far the most popular locomotive in the United States is the diesel electric type (Fig 4) Its power is the variable speed diesel engine its transmission the flexible electrical system of generator and motors

The generator driven directly from the diesel engine provides electric power for the motors located on the trucks and geared to the driving axles. The generator is separately excited by an auxiliary generator driven by the diesel through gear trains or V belt. This or other auxiliary generators similarly driven provide power for auxiliaries and battery charging. The diesel engine is started by using the generator as a motor with the battery supplying the power.

The air compressor that provides air for the braking system and air operated auxiliaries is directly connected to the diesel. Fans for the cooling system and traction motor blowers are geared or

V belt driven from the diesel. In some models the fans are driven by ac motors powered by an ac alternator built on the end of the main generator.

In starting power is increased by increasing engine speed. After full engine speed has been obtained motor transition and field hunting are used to obtain higher locomotive speeds.

The speed of the diesel engine is controlled by its governor. To balance the power demand of the electric generator and power output of the diesel, a load regulator is connected to the governor.

Heating for passenger service is supplied by a steam generator.

The development of the diesel has brought a new type locomotive into prominence—the road switcher. Constructed similarly to the switcher, it has sufficient power for either light passenger or local freight service and being adaptable to multiple unit operation, it is a versatile piece of equipment.

Turbine locomotive This type locomotive is powered by a steam or gas turbine (see GAS TURBINE STEAM TURBINE). The turbine power is transmitted to the driving wheels through an electric transmission system.

A modern steam turbine coal fired locomotive is rated for 4500 hp. It has a starting tractive effort

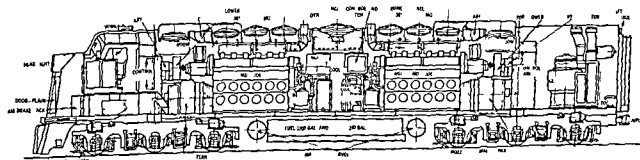
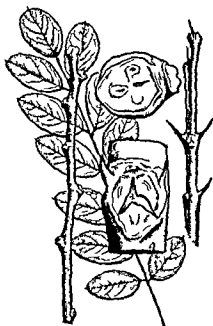


Fig. 4 Diesel-electric locomotive rated for 2400 hp, 70 ft long and weighs 324,800 lb load and (General Motors)



Black locust *Robinia pseudoacacia* (A. H. Graes
Illustrated Guide to Trees and Shrubs, Harper, 1956)

spreading fibrous root system which support nitrogen fixing nodules the black locust is well adapted to erosion control and soil reclamation (see SOIL CONSERVATION). Many varieties are planted as shade or ornamental trees.

The honey locust which reaches a height of 135 ft is native in the Appalachian and the Mississippi Valley regions but is also widely naturalized in the eastern United States and southern Canada. The flowers are inconspicuous but the large brown fruit pods (12-18 in long) are striking. The tree may be easily recognized at any season of the year by the branched thorns growing on the trunk or branches. The leaves are either pinnate or bipinnate. The reddish wood is hard, strong, and coarse grained and takes a high polish. Because it is durable in contact with soil it is used for fence posts and railroad ties. It is also used for construction furniture and interior finish. Although it belongs to the legume family the roots do not possess nitrogen fixing bacteria. The tree is often used for hedges as an ornamental and for shade. See FOREST AND FORESTRY TREE [A H C]

Loess

An essentially unconsolidated unstratified calcareous silt. Most commonly it is homogenous permeable buff to gray in color and contains calcareous concretions and fossils. In natural and artificial excavations the loess maintains notably stable vertical faces.

Texture and composition. Mechanical analyses of loess show that fine sand (grains >0.074 mm) comprises 0-10%, silt (0.074-0.005 mm) comprises 50-85%, and clay (grains <0.005 mm) comprises 15-45%. Variations in published analyses may result in part from the different grade size limits used by the investigators. Although dominantly silt and often referred to as well sorted loess is actually only moderately well sorted. The

silt (and sand) grains are usually angular to subangular. Clay occurs as silt size aggregate as coatings on silt grains and as interstitial filling.

The silt and sand fraction of the loess has the following mineral composition: quartz, 50-100%; feldspars, 15-30%; carbonates (mainly calcite), 0-11%; and heavy minerals, 5-15%. X-ray identification of the minerals in the <0.005 mm fraction show abundant quartz plus varying proportions of montmorillonoids, illites, and chlorites. In texture and mineral composition loess is comparable to the average mudstone or shale. It is susceptible to authigenic changes such as the transformation of clay mineral formation of chlorites and the movement of soluble materials, especially carbonates. See AUTHIGENIC MINERALS, CLAY MINERALS, SEDIMENTARY ROCKS.



Loess deposits of the world (From A. K. Lobeck, *Geomorphology*, McGraw-Hill, 1939)

Occurrence and origin. Loess is typically developed in areas peripheral to those covered by the last ice sheets in America and Europe. Greatest thicknesses (more than 150 ft) occur in the uplands bordering the valleys of the major streams. There is a general but irregular thinning of the loess in one or more directions away from each valley. Other notable areas are northern China and Argentina. Most of the loess seems to have been deposited during the latest (Wisconsin) glacial stage. Little or no loess is found associated with earlier glacial deposits or covering the area actually occupied by the latest ice sheet. No loess deposits older than the Pleistocene are known.

Many theories have been proposed to explain the deposition of loess. The most widely accepted theory is that the materials were transported and deposited by wind. Source areas were nearby flood plains and till plains. Controversy continues however for some investigators present evidence and arguments in favor of the alluvial origin of some loess. Others hold that primary deposits by wind or water have been greatly modified by colluviation to produce loess. See SEDIMENTATION (GEOLOGY).

[C. J. R.]
Bibliography. A. K. Lobeck, *Geomorphology*, 1939; F. J. Pettijohn, *Sedimentary Rocks*, 2d ed., 1957.

Logarithm

An exponent of a suitably chosen positive number (base) larger than unity. Logarithms are of value in mathematical computation and in the equations

form has used in the pressing natural phenom

The use of natural logarithms (base $e = 2.718$) is usually attributed to John Napier by his book of a table of logarithms in Edinburgh 1614 and the title *Monstrum Logarithmorum* (see *De Cryptographia*) even though the function is tabulated by Napier and is merely related to a different base, then natural logarithms.

The introduction of common logarithms (base 10) is generally attributed to Henry Briggs. Napier's share is acknowledged here by Briggs himself in his *Arithmetica Logarithmica* in 1624.

Theory If $b = a^x$ then x is called the logarithm of b to the base a and is written $x = \log_a b$. From this definition it follows that all positive numbers larger than unity have positive logarithms, all positive numbers smaller than unity have negative logarithms, and the logarithm of unity is equal to 0. Since $b = 1$ irrespective of the value of b it follows that the logarithm of unity is equal to 0. From the known properties of exponentials expressed by the relations

$$b^x \cdot b^y = b^{x+y} \quad b^x / b^y = b^{x-y} \\ (b^x)^y = b^{xy} \quad \sqrt[y]{b^x} = b^{x/y}$$

it follows immediately that (1) the logarithm of a product is the sum of the logarithms of the factors, (2) the logarithm of the ratio of two numbers is equal to the difference between the logarithms of the numerator and the logarithm of the denominator, (3) the logarithm of the m th power of a number is m times the logarithm of the number, and (4) the logarithm of the m th root of a number is equal to the logarithm of the number divided by m . These properties are especially useful for the great simplification in the task of carrying out numerical calculations involving multiplication, division, raising numbers to certain powers, and taking the roots of certain orders of given numbers. It is also possible to construct a table of logarithms to a certain base from which, by using the computer, need only multiply the logarithms of prime numbers because the logarithm of any number which is not prime may be obtained from the logarithms of its prime factor by simple multiplication. See Example.

Although the properties of logarithms have been known since the time of the Babylonians, a table of logarithms was first published by Henry Briggs in 1624. The first tables of logarithms were published by Briggs in 1624 and the method described as the method of the finite series.

$$1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{4} + \dots$$

The series of logarithms to the base 10 is usually referred to as the common logarithms. The series of

logarithms to the base e is called natural logarithms.

Common logarithms have certain obvious advantages not shared by natural logarithms. All numbers between 1 and 10 have logarithms between 0 and 1, all numbers between 10 and 100 have logarithms between 1 and 2, and so on. Thus the integral part of the common logarithm of a number is greater than unity by one unit less than the number of digits before the decimal point. This integral part is called the characteristic of the decimal part, and is called the mantissa. Similarly, because the common logarithms of 0.1, 0.01, 0.001, etc., are -1 , -2 , and -3 , it follows that the logarithm of a number smaller than unity having p zeros after the decimal point may be expressed as the sum of a negative characteristic equal to $-(p+1)$ and a positive mantissa.

Natural logarithms. Because the number $e = 2.718$ is the base of the system of natural logarithms, it is irrational, that is, it cannot be expressed as the ratio of two integers (and therefore when expressed as a decimal number it involves an infinite number of decimal places with no repeating groups of digits). It might seem odd, therefore, that it has been chosen as the base of a system of logarithms. The primary motivation for this choice lies in the fact that the solutions of numerous problems in applied mathematics are most naturally expressed in terms of powers of e . Thus, for instance, the solutions of the problems of equilibrium of a flexible cable, the transient flow of electric current in a circuit, and the disintegration of radioactive elements are expressed in terms of e^x where x is either positive or negative and depends on the physical parameter of the problem in question. Thus, the tabulation of the function e^x for both positive and negative values of x was an indispensable aid.

Obtaining the solutions of many physical problems because the logarithmic function is the inverse of the exponential function, a table of natural logarithms can be constructed with relative ease from a table of e^x by the process of interpolation. Another motivation for constructing tables of natural logarithms is the fact that natural logarithms are the integrals of the function $1/x$ of polynomials and of functions which may be approximated by polynomials or by polynomials. Indeed, it is a well-known fact that the zeros of a polynomial $P_n(x)$ are known so that $P_n(x) = a_0(x-x_1)(x-x_2)\dots(x-x_n)$ and if $Q(x)$ is a polynomial of degree smaller than n , then the quotient $Q(x)/P(x)$ may be expressed as the sum of

$$\sum_{k=1}^n \frac{A_k}{x-x_k}$$

where the A_k may be easily determined. A corollary

$$\int \frac{Q(x)}{P(x)} dx = \sum_{k=1}^n A_k \int \frac{dx}{x-x_k} \\ = \sum_{k=1}^n A_k \ln(x-x_k)$$

Table of logarithms

| Number | Nat. ral logarithm | Common logarithm |
|---------|-----------------------|---------------------|
| 0.01 | 86 - 10 | ~ (8 - 10) |
| 1.0 | 0 | 0 |
| e = 718 | 1 | 0.343 |
| 10 | 2.303 | 1 |
| 1000 | 6.909 | 3 |

Relation between logarithm bases Let l_1 be the known natural logarithm of a number N . What is the common logarithm of N ? Clearly $N = e^1$ and therefore $\log_{10} N = l_1 \log_{10} e$. Since $\log_{10} e = 0.43429$ (to five decimals) it can be concluded that natural logarithms are converted into common logarithms by multiplying the natural logarithm by the factor 0.43429 which is called the modulus. Similarly the common logarithm is converted into a natural logarithm by division by the modulus 0.43429 or multiplication by 2.303.

Logarithms of complex numbers Since b^i is positive when b is positive, negative numbers have no real logarithms. Nevertheless Euler's famous formula $e = \cos \theta + i \sin \theta$ where $i = \sqrt{-1}$ makes it possible to define not only the logarithm of a negative number but also the logarithm of a complex number. Indeed any complex number $a + ib$ may be written in the form $\rho e^{i\theta}$ where $\rho = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$ and $\theta = \arctan(b/a)$. It follows that the logarithm of a complex number $a + ib$ is a complex number whose real part is the logarithm of its modulus ρ and whose imaginary part is its phase (or argument) θ . Because $e = e^{i0}$ it follows that a complex number has an infinite number of logarithms given by the relation

$$\log(a + ib) = \log \sqrt{a^2 + b^2} + i(\theta + 2n\pi)$$

where n is a positive or negative integer.

As previously mentioned the evaluation of natural logarithms may be based on inverse interpolation in a table of e . For small values of x positive or negative one may use the expansion

$$\log(1+x) = x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} - \frac{x^4}{4} + \frac{x^5}{5} - \frac{x^6}{6} + \dots$$

This expansion may be derived from Taylor's series

$$f(x+a) = f(a) + \frac{x}{1} f'(a) + \frac{x^2}{1 \cdot 2} f''(a) + \frac{x^3}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3} f'''(a) + \dots$$

by writing $f(x) = \log x$. After a sufficiently accurate table of $\log(1 \pm x)$ for $x = k/10$, $k = 1, 2, 3, \dots, 9$ and $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots, N$ where N is sufficiently large (perhaps 15) has been computed, this table may be used to compute the logarithm of any number. From the above expansion for $\log(1+x)$ it is easy to derive the expansion

$$\log p = \frac{1}{2}(\log(p-1) + \log(p+1)) + S(p)$$

where

$$S(p) = \frac{1}{2p^2-1} + \frac{1}{3(2p^2-1)^3} + \frac{1}{(2n+1)(2p^2-1)^{2n+1}} + \dots$$

which has the virtue that $S(p)$ converges quite rapidly. Thus for $p > 10,000$ the error resulting from neglecting all but the first term in $S(p)$ is considerably less than 10^{-9} . See *NUMBER THEORY*, NUMERICAL ANALYSIS [A. N. S.]

Logging (forestry)

The first step in lumber manufacture is harvesting trees from forests in the form of logs and delivering the logs to a sawmill. See *LUMBER MANUFACTURE*.

Equipment Felling trees selected for cutting is accomplished with hand saws or by power saws. The chain type gasoline powered saw with cutting teeth in a chain moving rapidly around the blade is the most widely used (Fig. 1). Trunks of felled trees are severed at log length intervals to the point of minimum merchantable size or quality in the top. Most log lengths are 12, 14, and 16 ft corresponding to the standard lengths of lumber used in general construction although other lengths are cut for special needs.

Logs are skidded short distances over unimproved terrain to an assembly yard or a loading point on a logging railroad, a truck hauling road, a winter sled road, or a stream in which the logs can be floated or loaded on barges. This requires considerable power as do all subsequent steps in logging. For example, a longleaf pine log 16 ft long and 18 in. in diameter weighs 1500 lb. Logs are skidded by mobile power units such as a horse or a



Fig. 1 A logger felling a log with a chain power saw. (Photograph by Homer C. P.)

tracto r by t u ary d e l p o w r u i t w i t h
drums d bles. The m b i l e u t g o e s t o t h l g s
a d p u l l t h e m t o t h e r o d i d e. W i t h a s t u n a r y
u n t l g s a r e f a t e d t o t h e n d o f a c b l e a n d a
u t n d t h e d r u m t h l g a e p u l l e d i t A
n d a r i e t y o f t y p e s n d z e o f k i d d g e q u i p m e n t h
b e e n p e f e c t e d t m e e t a r a t n f
t u m b e z e t r r i a n d d e t y f t h e i n d i t b e
u t.

Methods. Att chme ts e d t f a t e l g s t o k d
d g d e v e s r e t o g s i m i l t c e t o g o r
h k r s r e s e m b l g l p o o e s p l e d a u d t h e
d s f l W h e t h e g r n d i t o o s w a m p y t o
p p o r t a n i m l s t t r s o r t o o t e e p c b l e k d
d g i s e d T h e h i g h f i d c t f c a b l e s k i d d i n g
i n s t a l l t s q u s m i m m d l y l o g l u m e s
f 50 000 f t 10-3 e r p e r a t n g l i f e n d t a d
g a n g 10 000 f t / e. T h e i m p l e t f m f

b l k d d g c t f d a g g g l o g n t h e
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t h l A m h m w i d l y e d m e t h o d i s t h
h i g h l d w i t h t h a l W i t h t t h e p l h g c b l e s
l e d t r o m t h p l l g d m t h g h a p l l e y b l o c k
f a t e d 30-150 f t u p t e e r p r a n d t h n t
t o t h k d d g a. A l i g h t e r c b l e g g e d t o
p l l t h e k d d g a b l e r a p d i y o t a f t e r a l o a d h a
b e e k d d e d W h e k d d i g h a s b e e n i m p l e t e d
i n s h a r a, t h e r h a u l b l o c k r e l e d t e d
a n d t h k d d g l m e d t t h e d j e n t s e g m e n t. I l l
b l k d d i g m l a r p t e n i s f l l o e d, t h a t t h t f m g a r n d t h r e l a t i o n a l c h e t
w i t h l g h a s b e n c e e d

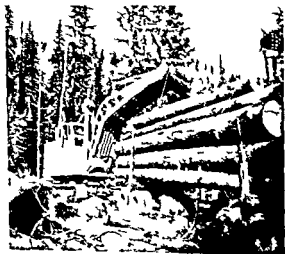
A h d b l s t e t h e d b e t w a h d p a r t
t h e p o t t d s u c e e t a i l p a a t t h
f r e d g e f t h e k d d g l o u s e d w h t h
k d d g d t c e d t h a t w h h t h e h i g h
l e d m e t h o d f i e t T h e e e l o e h e d
m e t h o d b t a l l t h k d d l n e x t d u p t h e
h d p a r t h r g h a t l l y b l o c k t h t r i d e t h e
a n c b l e t e t h e d b e t c e t h e p a n d t h e n
t h g r d h l g s b e f a t e d t i t T h e
k d d g l n p u t e d a l g e s k d d g t r l b y
t h e k d d m a n s e d b y g n a l m e A l d f
l g s i p r t l y r w h l l y e d b o t h e g n d
d t h p l l d b y t h t l l y t t h h d p r
G d k d d g a b e u s e d s f e c t i e l y f r d e
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f e c t i t 400-800 f t, d p d g o n t h e h g h t f
t h h i g h l d b l o c k O v e r h e d b l k d d g h w
e v e r b u d p t 34 m l e o r f r t h e

W h t r r p r m i t s m b l p w e k d d g i
l l y f e d b u f t s t l t y d b e
s e t p r m i t l g d t r e d y n g t
p b l f g i g t m e r h t b l e z e w h a
b l k i d d i n g q z e d e t r t t l l t
t r e e s t h k d d g A m l l o g g n g h d e
p p e a r d f m l l b t t h e m l l e t p t n s
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g r d T t t g h e f w d e g f
u s e e e d t l y f r k d d g i a l l p t
f t h t r y T h e y d p t b l t l g t
m l l g s t t p m d d y t d t w
e d g r d T h h p p r t n l i d

p u l l e y t h u g h w h i c h t h e c a b l e f r m t h e t r a t r
w i n c h i s e x t e n d e d t o t h l g s. W h e n t h e y a r e f a
t e n e d t o t h e c a b l e t h e y a r e p u l l e d u p u n d e r t h e
a r c h a d t h n d r a g g e d w i t h t h e r f r o n t e n d s f i t h
g r n d t r e d c e f r e t n A c a w l e r t e n a d a r c h
n e e d e d f r l a y l a d a n d t e e p r t i d d g r u n d
W h e e l d a g r i c l t r a l t y p e t r a t r r e u e d i n t h e
E t a n d S o t h o n f i r m g r o u n d f r m a l l l g T r a c
t r k i d d i n g d t a n c n e b t p r a t i c l e n i d e r a
t i o s u u l l y l i m i t k i d d i g t 12 m i l F o r l g e r
k d d n g a n g e t t i g l g s o t o f w i d e r i r b o t
t m s l g w a g n w i t h w i d e e t a d o r w i t h
r a w l r t r e a d a e p l l e d b y t r a c t r

Loading A f t e r l o g h e b e e k i d d e d t t h
t a n p o r t n n y t e m t h y r e l a d e d n h c l e
r p u t n w a t e r f r t r a n p o r t t h m l l L o a d i n g
m e t h o d s r a g e f o m p u l l i n g t h e r o d l g U p s k i d
n t c h u c l e s w i t h a i m l r l i g h t t r c t r s t
h i g h l y p e c i l i z e d r a f r o d r t r c k l a d e r E c e p t
f o r l l g l o g v e k d s t o w a g n r t r k r
p h g t h e m i n t s t a m l g l d i g d e c e r e
d e s i g n e d t l i f t l o g a n d d e p i t t h e m n a c o e y
a e T h r q u i s a e r h a d p u l l e y b l o c k a
c a b l e, d p o w e u n i t w i l d u m o r a d r a w l a r
p l l o f t a m r t r a t r L o a d i n g a b l a r a t
t a h e d t o e h a n g g f m o r g i n p l s t g u y
l n e o a r e p l a c e d a t t h e n d s f m a b l e b o o m
T h e m o r e e s a t i l e l a d e r s a r e s e l f p r p l l e d w h
f l l s w g i g b o o m s w h i c h p e m t l d n g t r u c k
r c r s f r o m a n y p o r t (F g 2) S t a t i a r y t y p e s
m t l o a d f r m l o g o n c e t r t p t T l a t
t h m t a t t h e e n d f a l o d n g b l e f f t e n i n g
t o l g s m a y b t g s a b l e l o o p s T h e m t r e n t
d e v l p m n t i s b o o m w i t h a c o m p e e d a i r
t n g g r a b p e t e d b y t h e l d e r t h e l m i n a t e s
t h e h a z a r d s j b s o f t h e t g h o k r d t o j
l o d e r

Special transportation systems L a r g f r e t
e a r e q u i r e p e c i l t r a n p o r t a t i o n s y s t e m f r
h a u l g l g i n d e q t e o f m e t a p p l y m i l l



F g 2 A l f p p l l d h v y d t y l g l o d l d
g p d f l g l d h f t k h t
p t d (P h t g p h b y W s h g t l W k
S m l W h g t)

Table of logarithms

| N mbe | Nat al log rithm | Common log thm |
|-------|---------------------|-------------------|
| 0 01 | 586 - 10 | - (8 - 10) |
| 1 0 | 0 | 0 |
| - 718 | 1 | 0 4343 |
| 10 | 303 | 1 |
| 1000 | 6 909 | 3 |

Relation between logarithm bases Let l_1 be the known natural logarithm of a number N . What is the common logarithm of N ? Clearly $N = e^{l_1}$ and therefore $\log_{10} N = l_1 \log_{10} e$. Since $\log_{10} e = 0.43429$ (to five decimals) it can be concluded that natural logarithms are converted into common logarithms by multiplying the natural logarithm by the factor 0.43429 which is called the modulus. Similarly the common logarithm is converted into a natural logarithm by division by the modulus 0.43429 or multiplication by 2.303.

Logarithms of complex numbers Since b^i is positive when b is positive, negative numbers have no real logarithms. Nevertheless Euler's famous formula $e^{i\theta} = \cos \theta + i \sin \theta$ where $i = \sqrt{-1}$ makes it possible to define not only the logarithm of a negative number but also the logarithm of a complex number. Indeed any complex number $a + ib$ may be written in the form $\rho e^{i\theta}$ where $\rho = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$ and $\theta = \arctan(b/a)$. It follows that the logarithm of a complex number $a + ib$ is a complex number whose real part is the logarithm of its modulus ρ and whose imaginary part is its phase (or argument) θ . Because $e = e^{1}$ it follows that a complex number has an infinite number of logarithms given by the relation

$$\log(a + ib) = \log \sqrt{a^2 + b^2} + i(\theta + 2n\pi)$$

where n is a positive or negative integer.

As previously mentioned the evaluation of natural logarithms may be based on inverse interpolation in a table of e^x . For small values of x positive or negative one may use the expansion

$$\log(1+x) = x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} - \dots + (-1)^{n+1} \frac{x^n}{n} + \dots$$

This expansion may be derived from Taylor's series

$$f(x+a) = f(a) + \frac{x}{1} f'(a) + \frac{x^2}{1 \cdot 2} f''(a) + \dots + \frac{x^n}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot \dots \cdot n} f^{(n)}(a) + \dots$$

by writing $f(x) = \log x$. After a sufficiently accurate table of $\log(1 \pm x)$ for $x = k/10$, $k = 1, 2, 3, \dots, 9$ and $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots, N$ where N is sufficiently large (perhaps 15) has been computed, this table may be used to compute the logarithm of any number. From the above expansion for $\log(1+x)$ it is easy to derive the expansion

$$\log p = \frac{1}{2} [\log(p-1) + \log(p+1)] + S(p)$$

where

$$S(p) = \frac{1}{2p^2 - 1} + \frac{1}{3(2p^2 - 1)^3} + \frac{1}{(2n+1)(2p^2 - 1)^{2n+1}} + \dots$$

which has the virtue that $S(p)$ converges quite rapidly. Thus for $p > 10,000$ the error resulting from neglecting all but the first term in $S(p)$ is considerably less than 10^{-6} . See *NUMBER THEORY NUMERICAL ANALYSIS* [A 5 L.]

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Fig. 1. A logger felling a large tree with a chain saw. (Photograph by H. M. Little Co. p.)

If X is Y (an *universal affirmative* judgment)
 o X is \bar{Y} (an *universal negative* judgment)
 ome X is Y (particular affirmative judgment)
 ome X is \bar{Y} (particular negative judgment)

The three sentences contain altogether three
 S (the subject of the conclusion) P (the
 predicate of the conclusion) and M (the middle
 term) which are the three terms of the syllogism.
 The middle term is called major or minor term according as it
 stands for S or P respectively. It is by virtue of the
 middle term M that both S and P may be asserted
 of the same statements.

All hands men re professors

No hands men are professors

No hands men are professors

In a syllogism which M stands for P of course
 for rich, d S f r h a d some men Th p tuc
 syllogism is valid (that is, the conclusion is
 a consequence of the premises) and hence the validity
 of syllogism is not to be independent of the
 truth falsity of its conclusion. Not that the
 truth of premises, minor premise is decided on
 the basis of syllogism. The statements of type (E)
 (A) (E) respectively.

The four figures of the syllogism are represented by

| (I) | (II) | (III) | (IV) |
|-----|------|-------|------|
| MP | PM | MP | PM |
| SM | SM | MS | MS |
| SP | SP | SP | SP |

Each symbol MP SM stands on its own for the
 of the statements (A) (E) (I) (O) for example
 MP might symbolize the statement No M is P.
 Hence each figure has 4 = 64 possible forms,
 and consequently there are 4 × 4 = 256 possible
 forms for a syllogism. The generalization
 of the syllogism by logicians of the Middle Ages
 resulted in the following 19 of the possible
 256 forms that syllogism might take are dismissed
 as (1) (2) (3) (4) (5) (6) (7) (8) (9) (10) (11) (12) (13) (14) (15) (16) (17) (18) (19) (20) (21) (22) (23) (24) (25) (26) (27) (28) (29) (30) (31) (32) (33) (34) (35) (36) (37) (38) (39) (40) (41) (42) (43) (44) (45) (46) (47) (48) (49) (50) (51) (52) (53) (54) (55) (56) (57) (58) (59) (60) (61) (62) (63) (64) (65) (66) (67) (68) (69) (70) (71) (72) (73) (74) (75) (76) (77) (78) (79) (80) (81) (82) (83) (84) (85) (86) (87) (88) (89) (90) (91) (92) (93) (94) (95) (96) (97) (98) (99) (100) (101) (102) (103) (104) (105) (106) (107) (108) (109) (110) (111) (112) (113) (114) (115) (116) (117) (118) (119) (120) (121) (122) (123) (124) (125) (126) (127) (128) (129) (130) (131) (132) (133) (134) (135) (136) (137) (138) (139) (140) (141) (142) (143) (144) (145) (146) (147) (148) (149) (150) (151) (152) (153) (154) (155) (156) (157) (158) (159) (160) (161) (162) (163) (164) (165) (166) (167) (168) (169) (170) (171) (172) (173) (174) (175) (176) (177) (178) (179) (180) (181) (182) (183) (184) 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with daily capacities ranging from 50 000 to several hundred thousand feet per day. Standard gage logging railroads with such volumes are practicable. They consist of main lines with spurs that ultimately cover all the property. Spur spacing depends on the topography and the skidding method but it usually averages about $\frac{1}{4}$ mile. Diesel or steam locomotives move empty log cars to the loading area and assemble trains of loaded cars for hauling to the mill. Spur tracks are removed after the logs have been loaded out and relaid on new spur locations.

At present however most log hauling is by motor trucks ranging from 2-100 tons of gross vehicle weight. The larger types are used only on private roads as they far exceed permissible weights for public highways. Logs may be transferred from one transport method to another such as from a large truck to a small one for public highway haul or from truck to rail or to water for floating or barging.

Where available water transportation is desirable because less power is required to move floating logs. When northern freshets in the spring flow from the logging area to rivers that in turn flow to mills stream driving is an economical and effective means of log transport. Logs are floated unconfined but are kept from jamming in narrows or stranding on shores by a crew that follows the drive downstream. Water from melting snows is held upstream by small dams and released when the drive starts to flush the logs downstream. Stream driving can be used only in nonnavigable waters. In quiet waters logs can be floated confined within a boom of floating logs fastened end to end that serves as a floating fence. In navigable rivers and inland waterways logs are transported fastened together in rafts which are pushed or towed by tugs. Barges also can be loaded with logs and then moved by tugs or river craft from loading points to destination. The logging operation is completed when the logs are delivered to the mill or a shipping point.

Prelogging. In western forests of large trees prelogging is sometimes done in which the smaller trees are cut and removed with light tractors or even teams before the large trees are logged by cable systems or by heavy tractors. This reduces waste caused by breakage of the smaller tree. Integrated logging means the harvesting of several kinds of products from the same stand at about the same time. They are removed either prior to subsequent logging or at the time of logging and may include poles, pulpwood, veneer, bolts, cross ties or other products. [A E W]

Bibliography. See FOREST AND FORESTRY.

Logic

The subject that investigates, formulates and establishes principles of valid reasoning.

The first attempt to investigate systematically acceptable modes of reasoning was made by Aristotle in whose *Organon* reasoning was recognized

as the subject of a special science. In that work he formulated three basic laws of thought: (1) the law of contradiction (no proposition is both true and false), (2) the law of excluded middle (each proposition is either true or false), and (3) the law of identity (each proposition implies itself). Advanced as his views of logic were, it seems doubtful that the idea of axiomatizing it ever occurred to him despite the success of his contemporary Euclid in organizing geometry. That a peculiar logic which enunciates or establishes valid reasoning (rather than merely investigating it) began with the publication in 1854 of George Boole's *An Investigation of the Laws of Thought*. The partly abstract treatment of logic presented in this work initiated the completely abstract developments that were to follow. In it the laws of thought are regarded as mere conventions which, like the postulates of Euclidean geometry, might be modified or even rejected to create new logics. The only requirement that a new logic must satisfy is the one demanded of every deductive system—consistency. Just as different geometries are useful for different purposes, a logic that is appropriate in one environment might not be so in another. There are a growing number of competent individuals, for example, who consider that any logic containing Aristotle's law of excluded middle is not suitable for mathematics.

This article does not attempt to discuss all of the topics that are traditionally grouped under the term logic. Because it is assumed that the reader's principal interest in the subject is to acquaint himself with some of the principles for testing inferences to acquire a knowledge of the use of formal procedures in clarifying arguments and to learn how important parts of logic have in recent years been developed axiomatically, the classical theory of the syllogism will be examined and the deductive theory of truth functions (the calculus of propositions) will be presented in some detail. For the most part the discussion will be limited to what is called symbolic or mathematical logic for a peculiar set of symbols is employed to exhibit in the clearest way the (at times) complicated logical relations involved. The advantages of a thoroughgoing use of a good symbolization are enormous. It is by such means that modern logic is able to solve problems that were quite beyond the power of logicians of an earlier time and to render some of the achievements of those logicians almost trivial by comparison.

The syllogism. The formulation of the syllogism is contained in Aristotle's *Organon*. It had a great influence on medieval logicians for almost all their work centered about ascertaining its valid moods. The three characteristic properties of a syllogism are as follows:

1. It consists of three statements, the third one (conclusion) being a logical consequence of the first two (the premises).

2. Each of the three sentences has one of the extremes

true for all of the connectives. By use of the symbol \equiv_D to mean "is defined" it follows for example that

$$p \vee q \equiv_D (p \vee q) \quad p \supset q \equiv_D p \vee \neg q \\ p \equiv_D p \vee (p \vee q) \vee (\neg p \vee p)$$

In fact all the connectives can be defined in terms of one binary operation the so-called Scheffer stroke function $p|q$ which may be read "p is false or q is false". Thus

$$p \equiv_D p|p \quad p \wedge q \equiv_D (p|q)|(p|q) \\ p \vee q \equiv_D (p|p)|(q|q) \\ p \supset q \equiv_D ((p|p)|(p|p)|(q|q))$$

The logical connectives the letters p, q, r and so on that stand for propositions (propositional variables) and the parentheses brackets and braces needed for punctuation are formal concepts. A propositional function is a combination of concepts formal or nonformal involving at least one variable which is not a proposition but becomes one when all the variables are given specified value. Examples are (1) p and q (2) $x + y = 1$ and (3) x is president of the United States. Unlike a proposition a propositional function has no truth value. On the other hand the statement "For every integer $x, x + 1 \neq 0$ " is a proposition (not a propositional function) even though it contains a (bound) variable. A formal function is a propositional function that contains only formal concepts (for example $((p \vee q) \wedge r) \supset s$). The form of a given proposition is the formal function obtained from it by substituting formal concepts for all non-formal ones. Thus $p \wedge q$ is the form of the proposition "Leonard is happy and the moon is blue." Notice that in formalizing the above proposition different propositions were replaced by different propositional variables. A truth function is a propositional function in which only propositional variables occur and such that the truth value of each proposition obtained from the function by substituting specific propositions for the variables depends only on the truth values of those propositions. Examples are (1) $(p \wedge q) \vee r$ (2) Napoleon was a great general and p (where p is a propositional variable). On the other hand Jones stated that p is not a truth function.

This article is concerned principally with the class of formal truth functions (that is those containing only formal concepts) and with an important subclass called tautologies [that is the formal truth functions such that every proposition obtained from them by substituting specific values (propositions) for the variables they contain has the truth value T (true)]. A truth function is contingent provided it assumes both truth values T and F (false)—here only the classical two-valued (Aristotelian logic) truth functions are considered—and self-inconsistent provided it has only the value F . The character of a truth function is determined when it is shown to be self-inconsistent, contingent or a tautology.

Character of a truth function A truth function may be analyzed by means of a truth table or matrix. Such tables are made first for the elementary truth functions $p, p \vee q, p \wedge q, p \supset q$ as follows

| (I) | (II) | (III) | (IV) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|--|----------------------------|------------------------------|-------------------------------|---|--|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|--|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|--|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| $p \quad p$ | $p \quad q \quad p \vee q$ | $p \quad q \quad p \wedge q$ | $p \quad q \quad p \supset q$ | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
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| F | T | T | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| F | F | T | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| T | T | T | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
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| F | T | T | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| F | F | T | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

In every table each row of the last column gives that truth value of the function which is determined by the truth value (assigned to the variables) that are entered in the preceding columns of that row. For example the second row of table (IV) states that the truth function $p \supset q$ has value F (that is is false) when p has value T (that is is true) and q has value F . Since all logical connectives used in the logic of propositions are expressible in terms of negation and disjunction only tables (I) and (II) are really essential but tables (III) and (IV) are convenient when analyzing complicated truth functions. Although the character of any truth function may be determined by constructing its truth table the method is tedious when the function contains a large number of variables since the truth table of a truth function of n variables has 2^n rows. An example of the character of the truth function $(p \supset q) \supset (q \supset p)$ may be determined using tables (I) and (IV); the truth table of the function is found to be

| p | q | $p \supset q$ | $q \supset p$ | $(p \supset q) \supset (q \supset p)$ |
|-----|-----|---------------|---------------|---------------------------------------|
| T | T | T | T | T |
| T | F | F | T | T |
| F | T | T | F | T |
| F | F | T | T | T |

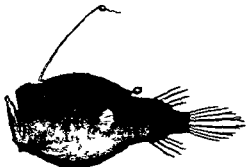
Since every entry in the last column is T the function $(p \supset q) \supset (q \supset p)$ is seen to be a tautology. It may also be observed that in each row the entries in columns 5 and 6 are the same; that is for any given values of p and q the functions $p \supset q$ and $q \supset p$ assume the same truth value. Hence $(q \supset p) \supset (p \supset q)$ and the two functions are logically equivalent. The principle embodied in this equivalence (the law of contraposition) is often used in mathematics.

Another device for ascertaining the character of a truth function is the method of negation. It sometimes happens that the character of the function obtained by negating a given function can be easily

birds the legs, being set far back, are useful for swimming but make the birds quite clumsy on land. They pursue fish underwater swimming with the feet only. Loons are Holarctic in distribution all four species occur in North America three of them in the United States. Loons are beautiful interesting birds, but they are best known for their call, which has been described as a weird sort of laughter. See GATTIFORMES [J.D.A.]

Lophiniformes

The anglerfishes and the related fishes highly modified derivatives of a teleost fish also known as the Pedicellatus was derived from perciform stock at least as early as Eocene time. The first dorsal fin reduced to few flexible rays, of which the first is placed on top of the head and bears a terminal bulb or tassel and functions as a bioluminescent. The epoptic are large and meet behind the supracapital. There are no ribs or epipleurals and the gill opens a small and placed far back. Pelvic fins, if present, are thymic and the pectoral girdle is not highly modified.



Anglerfish Cryptops. Length 4 ft (Aft). G.B.G. d.d.T.H.B. O. Ichthyology U.S. Natl. Museum Sp. 8112 1895)

There are 3 suborders 15 families, 50 genera and about 160 known species. All members of the order inhabit deep or tropical waters. The fishes are mostly sedentary and bioluminescent. Glands may be present on the deep-sea species. The male are dwarfed and attached as ectoparasites on the females. See Actinopterygii.

Bibliography: E.B. Riebel in The Central Fish Outgoing Taxonomy Distribution and Biology. Dana Rpt. 39 1901.

Lophophore

A flattened kin bearing ciliated tentacles. It occurs in Bryozoa (Ectoporeta and Ectoporeta) Brachipoda, and Phlebotomids. It is a cellular structure. In some groups it encloses only the mouth and the gill plates both mouth and gill plates. In others it is provided with muscles to surround and retract the Ectoporeta can retract like a pharynx. In the Ectoporeta it is a retractile structure.

both tentacles can be retracted into the body cavity. Tentacle number in bryozoans with a circular lophophore seems less variable than in bryozoans with a horseshoe-shaped lophophore. The lophophore serves as a trap for the food bearing stream. [M.D.R.]

Loran

A navigation system from which hyperbolic lines of position are determined by measuring the difference in time of arrival of pulses from widely spaced synchronized transmitting stations. The intersection of two such lines of position gives a navigational fix or location. Loran is used by commercial and military ships and aircraft. The name is derived from Long Range Navigation.

Developed during World War II to provide accurate navigational information over a wide area. Loran's nighttime service coverage was 63,000,000 square miles and its daytime coverage about 15,000,000 square miles by August, 1945.

Standard Loran Standard Loran transmitters send out trains of pulses about 50 microseconds wide at a recurrence rate of about 25 pulses per second (pps). A second base rate is 33 1/3 pps. The peak power of a transmitter is 100 kilowatts. Commercial Loran stations are on a regular basis. Radio frequencies employed are in the order of 2 megacycles.

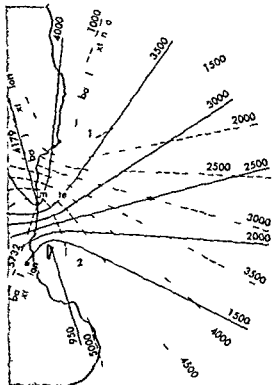


Fig 1 Two lines of position determined by measuring the difference in time of arrival of pulses from widely spaced synchronized transmitting stations. The intersection of two such lines of position gives a navigational fix or location. Loran is used by commercial and military ships and aircraft. The name is derived from Long Range Navigation.

- P1 $(p \vee p) \supset p$
 P2 $q \supset (p \vee q)$
 P3 $(p \vee q) \supset (q \vee p)$
 P4 $(q \supset r) \supset [(p \vee q) \supset (p \vee r)]$

These simple tautologies were selected by Alfred North Whitehead and Bertrand Russell in their monumental work *Principia Mathematica* as the basic set from which all tautologies can be derived. They had an additional postulate

- P5 $[p \vee (q \vee r)] \supset [q \vee (p \vee r)]$

that was later shown by Paul Bernays to be deducible from the first four postulates and hence may be deleted as a postulate. It is interesting to note that none of the three Aristotelian principles (the laws of identity, contradiction, and excluded middle) are in this basic set. They are all deduced as theorems.

Before any theorems can be deduced there must be available rules that allow one to go from one step in a proof to another. Among such rules are those of formal substitution according to which (1) any truth function may be substituted for any of the variables occurring in a postulate or theorem provided the substitution is carried out completely and (2) any expression may be replaced by one definitionally identical. Among the rules of formal assertion are (1) the principle of inference (that is, if P and $P \supset Q$ are postulates or proved theorems then Q is a theorem) and (2) the principle of adjunction (that is, if P and Q are postulates or theorems then $P \wedge Q$ is a theorem).

It was proved by E. L. Post that postulates P1-P4 are consistent; that is, it is impossible to deduce from them truth functions \perp and $\neg X$. He also proved that the four postulates form an independent set; that is, no one of the postulates can be deduced from the others.

Non-Aristotelian logics. In these logics the principle of the excluded middle (that is, each proposition is either true or false) is not valid. There are then at least three truth values possible for a proposition, and for this reason such logics are known as many-valued. In a many-valued logic the *reductio ad absurdum* procedure that is so frequently used in mathematics is much less effective than it is in the two-valued classical logic, for if it has been shown that a given proposition is not false one may not conclude (as is permissible in Aristotelian logic) that the proposition is true. The Aristotelian tautology $(p) \equiv p$ is not a tautology in a logic with at least three truth values. Doubts that the classical logic is an appropriate one to use in mathematics stem from the modern view that the concepts and relationships dealt with in mathematics have no real existence in the external world. It would seem to follow that the a priori nature of true and false then disappears and with it the law of excluded middle. If "true" be interpreted in mathematics to mean "provable" and a proposition be called false provided its negation is provable, then the law of excluded middle

is demonstrably false since it has been shown that mathematics contains propositions p such that neither p nor its negation $\neg p$ is provable. The intuitionistic school of the Dutch mathematician L. E. J. Brouwer rejects the excluded middle law and it forms no part of the logic of that school formulated by A. Heyting. See *BOOLEAN ALGEBRA*, *GEOMETRY*, *EUCLIDEAN MATHEMATICAL NOTATION*, *CONTEMPORARY MATHEMATICS*, *SCIENTIFIC METHODS*. [L. M. H. L.]

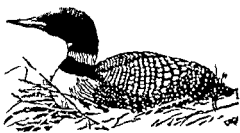
Bibliography. A. Ambrose and M. Lazerowitz, *Fundamentals of Symbolic Logic* 1948. A. Church, *Introduction to Mathematical Logic* 1956. E. L. Post, *Introduction to a general theory of elementary propositions* *Am J Math* 43 163-185 1921. A. Tarski, *Introduction to Logic* 3d ed 1949. A. N. Whitehead and B. Russell, *Principia Mathematica* 2d ed 1925.

Longitude, astronomical

Longitude determined by astronomical observations as distinguished from geographic longitude which is that shown on a map. Astronomical longitudes are determined by the definition that the longitude from Greenwich is identical with the difference between Greenwich mean time and local mean time. Greenwich mean time is ascertained by the reception of radio time signals. Local mean time is determined by observing either meridian transits of celestial objects or their altitudes near the prime meridian. In either case the angle between the line of sight and the direction of gravity is measured, the direction of gravity being established with the aid of a spirit level, a liquid surface, or observation of the horizon corrected for the elevation of the observer. The direction of gravity is however not in general precisely toward the axis of rotation of Earth as it would be if Earth were concentrically homogeneous. The deviations are called deflections of the vertical; they commonly amount to some seconds of arc, occasionally reach a minute of arc, and vary from place to place. A map constructed exclusively from astronomical observations would in consequence be distorted by amounts varying from a few hundred feet to more than a mile. See *GEODESY*. [C. M. C.]

Loon

Any of four species of aquatic birds of the genus *Gavia* comprising the family *Canidae* and the order *Gaviformes*. Loons are rather large diving



Loon *Gavia immer*; length 32 in. (E. L. P. H. F. *Field book of Natural History* McGraw-Hill 1949)

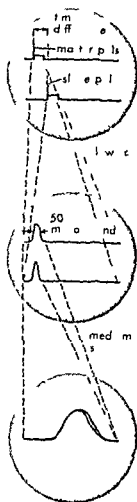


Fig 2 Pulses adjusted to sit on pedestals of electrically magnified and leading edges matched Exact time delay is shown by markers or counter settings

One station of a pair is designated a master and normally sends an uninterrupted series of pulses. The second station located some 200-300 nautical miles away is called a slave and must maintain its radio frequency and pulse recurrence rate exactly in accord with those of the master. In addition the slave must maintain a fixed time difference (usually 1000 microseconds) between its reception of the master signal and its transmission of the slave pulse. If either the master or slave operator notices a change in these relationships the operator periodically interrupts (blinks) his signal until proper adjustments have been made. The blinking signal warns navigators of possible error.

Because two pairs of loran signals are necessary to obtain a navigational fix at the intersection of two lines of position it is economical to operate a loran chain in groups of three stations (triplet). The center station of a triplet acts as the master for the other two and transmits at two pulse recurrence rates for example 25 and 25½ pps.

The loran receiving equipment used by the navigator comprises a fixed tuned receiver and an indicator that includes a cathode ray oscilloscope. A 100 kilocycle crystal clock with good short term stability is the basis of sweep generating and divider circuits. The crystal circuit can be tuned over

a narrow frequency range sufficient to adjust to small changes at the transmitter or receiver. A multicontact switch in the divider circuits provides synchronism of the sweep circuits to each of the pulse rates assigned the various stations of a chain. By this means a number of transmitting stations can operate on the same radio frequency. The individual pairs of stations are identified by their pulse modulation. The stations are identified as master or slave by causing the master pulse to arrive before the slave pulse. The unique time delay between arrival of master and slave pulses at the navigator's equipment is the desired position information.

In use the master pulse appearing as a vertical line and identified by arriving first is set upon a pedestal on the upper trace of a slow sweep oscilloscope pattern. A movable pedestal on the lower trace is placed beneath the slave pulse. Because of their different recurrence rate all other pulses received appear to move relative to the desired pair.

A fast sweep shows the form of the pulses. The pedestal control permits superposition of the leading edges of the pulses. Time markers generated by the crystal clock and the dividers show the time delay accurate to within a microsecond between master and slave pulses. This delay is shown on the corresponding line of position on a chart or map.

A similar observation on the other pair of signals of the triplet provides a second delay time also shown as a numbered line on the chart. The time required for such an observation is generally less than 3 minutes. In aircraft navigation it is customary to take a second reading on the first pair of stations and to average the two for greater accuracy because of the distance traveled while taking the readings.

Some loran indicators are direct reading; that is, numbered dials or counters show the delay automatically after the pulses have been superimposed.

The distance at which reliable loran fixes are generally obtained is about 800 nautical miles over water from the pair of transmitting stations during

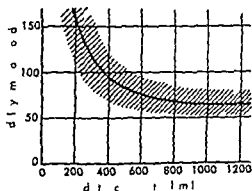


Fig 3 Skywave delay as a function of distance shows that skywave lags behind ground wave. Shaded area shows limits of variation. (From J. A. Pearce, A. A. McKenzie, and R. H. Woodward, *Loran*, McGraw-Hill, 1948).



$(x' y' z' t)$ respectively the equations connecting these variables have the form $(x^0 = ct \quad x = x^1 \quad y = y^1 \quad z = z^1)$

$$x^\alpha = \sum_{\beta=0}^3 L_{\beta}^{\alpha} (x^\beta - a^\beta) \quad (\alpha = 0 \ 1 \ 2 \ 3)$$

where $a^0 \ a^1 \ a^2 \ a^3$ are arbitrary real constants
Forming the two real matrices

$$L = \begin{bmatrix} L_0^0 & L_1^0 & L_2^0 & L_3^0 \\ L_0^1 & L_1^1 & L_2^1 & L_3^1 \\ L_0^2 & L_1^2 & L_2^2 & L_3^2 \\ L_0^3 & L_1^3 & L_2^3 & L_3^3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\eta = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

the matrix L is subject to the condition

$$L^{-1} = \eta L \eta$$

where L and L are the inverse and transposed matrices of L

The Lorentz transformation group is composed of four classes of transformations which can be organized as indicated in the following table depending on the algebraic signs of the pivotal element L_0^0 of the matrix L and the determinant of L which is designated by $D(L)$. Positive signs are indicated by + and negative signs by - in the table

Classes of Lorentz transformations

| | L | $D(L)$ |
|--------|-----|--------|
| P pe | + | + |
| Imp pe | - | + |
| | - | - |

The improper Lorentz transformations involve changes of sign (reflections) of the space coordinates the time coordinate or both. For additional discussion of improper Lorentz transformations see SPACE TIME

The proper Lorentz transformations form a 10-parameter group which can be generated from translations of the space-time coordinates rotations of the space reference frame and transformations to uniformly moving systems. See RELATIVITY [E L III]

Bibliography R Brauer and H Weyl *Am J Math* 57 425 1935 F D Murnaghan *The Theory of Group Representations* 1938

Loschmidt's number

The number of molecules in 1 ml of a perfect gas at 1 atm pressure and 0°C. It is found by dividing the Avogadro number by the normal molar volume or normal gram molecular volume in milliliters. Its value is $(2.68709 \pm 0.00009) \times 10^{23}$ /per ml. See AVOGADRO NUMBER MOLAR VOLUME [T C W]

Loudness

The psychological property of sound characterized by strength or weakness. It varies most directly with the physical intensity of sound increasing as intensity is increased and decreasing as intensity is decreased. Loudness also varies with frequency of sound waves. Tones of very low and very high frequencies require much more intensity than the

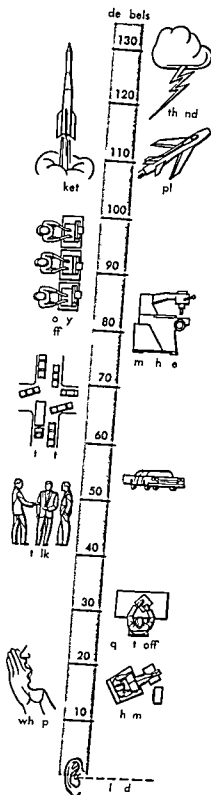


Fig 1 A decibel scale showing relative intensity of common sounds

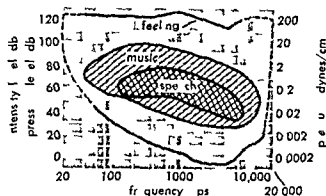


Fig 1 Approximate auditory limits of the ear. Shaded areas indicate the intensity and pressure levels found in speech and music. Standard reference levels are 10^{-6} watt/cm² intensity (plane wave) and 0.0002 dyne/cm pressure.

Tests have shown that frequency ranges of 80–11 000 cps for music and 150–8000 cps for speech if uniform throughout the listening area give high quality reproduction in an otherwise distortionless system. The pressure range requirements are set primarily by listener preference. The listener is seldom interested in hearing a wanted sound in the presence of a competing unwanted sound (by definition noise) of the same pressure. Noise therefore commonly limits the minimum pressure of interest particularly in music reproduction.

Alternatively the requirements of the speaker may be considered from the viewpoint of the complete system designer who normally desires a speaker which does not noticeably narrow the frequency bandwidth, lower the signal to noise ratio or increase the distortion of the system. Probably the most important requirement is that the speaker not introduce noises that are clearly spurious and unrelated to the signal such as rattles and buzzes. Some physical performance characteristics can be adequately measured and specified; others cannot however, and a thorough listening test is an essential part of any speaker testing program. The final judge of the value and adequacy of the speaker (and system) is the ear of the ultimate user. See PSYCHOACOUSTICS, SOUND REPRODUCTION SYSTEMS, ELECTRICAL.

Physical performance characteristics Because of the importance of pressure and frequency in hearing the loudspeaker output in terms of these variables is also important.

Pressure response Measured at a specified frequency the pressure response is the sound pressure in dynes/cm² at a designated location with respect to the speaker per volt input. The pressure is commonly measured under actual or simulated outdoor free field conditions in the absence of unintended reflecting surfaces.

Pressure response-frequency characteristic Commonly called simply the frequency response, this is the pressure response obtained as the test signal frequency is varied slowly over the audible

frequency range (20–20 000 cps). The response characteristic should be free of abrupt changes which are accompanied by transient and sometimes nonlinear distortion. A smooth curve also simplifies electrical equalization or compensation.

Directional characteristics These are determined by measuring the pressure response at a sufficient number of points in the intended listening region and at a sufficient number of frequencies to predict the frequency response at any listener's position with the desired precision. The most common practice is to obtain frequency response characteristics at a few points equidistant from the speaker but subtending different angles with the principal axis of the speaker. On-axis curves are usually published because the pressure is normally a maximum particularly at high frequencies where focusing is marked. In typical environments the response characteristic at 30° is much more useful for predicting the average response throughout the listening region. In use the speaker is positioned and oriented to give the most favorable average pressure response-frequency characteristic in the listening region. See SOUND.

Distortion Although distortion may be more broadly defined, loudspeaker distortion is commonly limited to nonlinear transient and frequency modulation distortion.

Nonlinear distortion arises from lack of proportionality between the electrical input and acoustical output signal with a sustained (steady state) input signal. With a sinusoidal input integral multiples of the fundamental frequency or harmonics are generated. If two or more sinusoidal signals are applied the nonlinearity gives rise to interaction between the two or intermodulation distortion resulting in the generation of harmonics and the sum and difference frequencies of the fundamentals and harmonics.

Transient distortion arises from the inability of the speaker to follow instantaneously irregular changes in the wave shape of the electrical signal. Sharp peaks and valleys in the pressure frequency response curve are to be avoided because they indicate the presence of inadequately damped resonances which give rise to this distortion. The poorly damped resonances color the reproduction and when present at high frequencies they are detected as a ringing sound.

Frequency modulation of a signal is the alteration or modulation of its apparent frequency by a second or modulating signal. It occurs when the radiating diaphragm is vibrated toward and away from the listener by the modulating signal. The velocity component with respect to the listener produces a Doppler shift. See DOPPLER EFFECT.

Electrical speaker impedance This is the complex ratio of the applied sinusoidal voltage across the signal terminals to the resulting current. The normal or loaded impedance Z_L , the free or unloaded impedance Z_0 , and the blocked impedance Z_b correspond respectively to operation with il-

normal acoustic load via a vacuum and with the
at added phragm blocked r mmobilized
F / s The f r f a t r M of the motor
1) the complex ratio of the force required to
lock r umm b l i e th mot r to the g al imp t
current to the motor (2) the complex ratio of
the resonating p n r t oltage to the el city f
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The normal imped c f a peake s

$$Z_V = Z_0 + \frac{jY}{\omega} \quad (1)$$

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f e y the t of the f l a c u t e n gy
t p t t h e gy the g l s y tem will supply
t de g at d t t o e.

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a n mber f q id t t p o t f m the pe l e r
nd f e field (t d o o) and t n and m m g
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l d r th b o t t c d i t n b t o t s o r m a l
l a m g r o o m th t t y l the d t o o f
p p g t

$$I / p / \rho c = 2.42 \times 10^{-7} p \text{ watt/m} \quad (2)$$

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10-15 c of the r t e d l u c A s a n e a m p l e 10-
w i t p e a k e r i s i n t e n d e d t o w r k w i t h a n o r m a l l y
o p e a t e d 10-w a t t m p l i f i e r w i t h p e e h and m i c
i n p u t I t i s n o t e x p e c t e d t o p e r a t e c o n t i n u o u s l y
w i t h 10 w a t t i n p u t a t a l l f r e q u e n c i e i n i t t a n s -
m i t t e d f e q u e n c y b d w i t h o u t d i s t r i o n o r f a i l
u r e

Speaker types Speakers ar comm nly cla si
fied by terms wh ch d scribe the r three mporta t
f nctio l p is the m t r d a p h a g m and acous-
tic r d i t o n o n t r l l i n g e l e m e n t The mot r co
r t e l e t r i c a l e n e r g y i n t o m h a n c l e n e r g y a d
c o m p l e the e l e c t c a l s i g n a l s o c e o m m n l y a
a m p l i f i e r t o the d a p h r g m C o m m m t r t y p e
a e m i g c o d u c t (p i n p a l l y m i g c o l
d y a m i r e l y r i b b n c o n d c t o r) a d e l e t r o -
t a t M i g c d u t p e a k e r s a r t h e i n
w h i c h the m e c h n i c l i f e s r e s u l t f m m a g n e t c
e a t i n b e t w e e n the f i e l d of the u r e n t n a m
n g n d t r and a t e d y m a g e t i f i l d I n a
m o i n g l p e a k e r the n d c t i s n the f o r m f
a i l o n d c t e l y o e t d t a o u c e f l c t r i
a l e r g y n d m e h n a l l y a t t c h e d t o the d a
p h r g m A n e l t t a t i c p e a k e r i s n e i n w h i c h
the m e c h n i l d p l c e m e t a r e p r o d c d b y the
c t u o f e l e c t t i f i l d O t h e r m t r t y p e
w h i c h n l u d th m g t i a r m a t e r p e c m a t i
p e z o l e c t r i and n e t y p e e d i u s e d i n the
e f e r n c l t e d t h b i b l i o g r a p h y

Th diaphragm is the eleme t whi h ca s s th
a t i b a t a d i b t e d b y th m t h n e
t c p l the r l o d (r a d i a n m p e d n e) t
the moto

The adia n t r l l g e l e m e n t s r s t u t
r g i d n n b t g n m a l l y n n b r h i g
t u t r w h i h t r o l the d r g n c e of the
o u d w e f r m n e o r b t h d e f the d i
p h r g m d p r e n o c c t r l n t r a c t o n b e t w e n
the f r t n d b a k d a t n L h t p c p l f u n
t n s t o c a the o d p r e n the l i t e n
g e g b o t h b y i e r a i g t h e n g y c o e r
e f f i c n y d b y d r c t i n g the m t t d w a e
the d e d d t v b r a t n o f the d i p h r a g m
p r d c l i g h t l t r t n o c c e s e a d d e c r e a e
th i p r r b and b e l w t m p h e c
p r e r e I n e o c c r n n d s d c e
o c t h t h A t l w f e q n s the f n t
p w c n e h the b c k f t h d i p h g m
(d t h b k p e s s w a e c r a h the f r t
f t h d a p h r m) b f e the d a p h a g m m d
p p a b l y H e l m t c m p l e t p u e e u
t a l z a t o d t u t e t f r n c e, o c s u n
l s i g n d s f b a f f l n t e p e d n x
t n i n f t h d i p h a g m u p p t Th t e r m b a f f l e
l l y p p l d t e l t l y f l a t t r t u r f
b t a t l a s I n d d t n t b a f f l e s, th r m

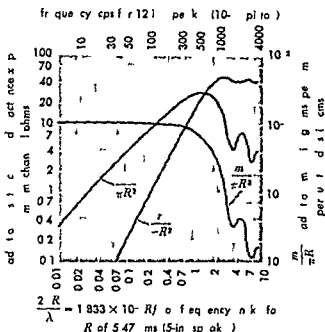


Fig 2 Average radiation resistance reactance and mass per square centimeter of a flat rigid piston vibrating in an infinite rigid nonabsorbing baffle. Piston radiates into a solid angle $\Omega = 2\pi$ steradians (hemisphere). λ = length of radiated wave cm (From K. H. Henry, *Radio Engineering Handbook*, 5th ed. McGraw-Hill 1959).

mon radiation controlling structures are conventional cabinets (open back boxes) total enclosures (closed boxes) vented or reflex enclosures (boxes closed except for one or more openings through which the rear radiation is modified and combined with the front radiation to augment the output over a narrow low frequency range) and horns. Speakers are also frequently classified as horn and hornless (direct radiator) type. A direct radiator speaker is one in which the diaphragm radiates directly into the listening region rather than through a horn. It necessarily employs some other type of radiation controlling structure such as those listed above.

Radiation impedance. The added impedance to motion of a diaphragm or sound radiating surface arising from its contact with air is called the radiation impedance. Radiation resistance is the component arising from energy radiation and radiation reactance is the reactive component. A major problem to the speaker designer and one of importance to the user is that of obtaining efficient energy transfer or coupling from a relatively high motor and diaphragm mechanical impedance to a low air radiation impedance.

The average radiation impedance per unit area of a flat piston is shown in Fig 2. When the length of the radiated wave λ exceeds the perimeter of the diaphragm (when $\lambda > 2\pi R$ at low frequencies) the radiation reactance is mass reactance and proportional to frequency and the radiation resistance per unit area is proportional to the frequency squared and to the area. The acoustic power P radiated by a piston is

$$P = r v^2 \times 10^{-7} \text{ watt} \quad (3)$$

where r is the total radiation resistance (obtained by multiplying the per unit area value from Fig 2 by the area) and v the rms piston velocity cm/sec.

If two or more identical speakers are mounted close together in a common plane and supplied with signal energy from the same source the combined diaphragms will have substantially the same radiation impedance at low frequencies as a single diaphragm of the combined area. Differences occur as the wavelength diminishes (as frequency rises) and approaches half the diaphragm perimeter. By mounting a speaker adjacent to one or two large rigid nonabsorbing surfaces such as a floor or floor wall combination the radiation resistance may be made that of one speaker of a two or four speaker combination as shown in Fig 3. Each surface by complete wave reflection adds an image (by analogy with an optical mirror) which the diaphragm cannot distinguish from a true speaker or pair of speakers (see IMAGE ACOUSTICAL). An alternate way of considering this effect is to note that the solid angle into which the speaker radiates is $\pi/2$ and $\pi/4$ steradians or half quarter or eighth spheres respectively. A further advantage of locating a speaker in the corner is the narrower angle over which uniform high frequency response is required.

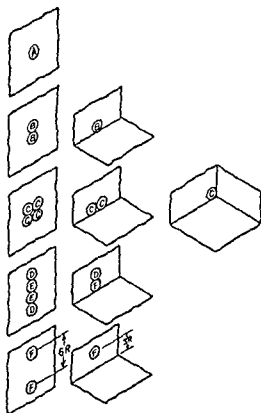


Fig 3 Effect of adding a plane and effect of a plane on radiation impedance. All pistons marked with the same letter see the same radiation impedance (From K. H. Henry, *Radio Engineering Handbook*, 5th ed. McGraw-Hill 1959).

Horns Structurally a horn is a rigid nonabsorbing tapered duct or passage. It may be straight, bent, or folded with concentric sound passages. The small end to which the horn unit (speaker) is attached is called the throat and the large radiating end is called the mouth.

Functionally it is (1) a tapered acoustic transmission line used to match the relatively high impedance looking back into the diaphragm to the relatively low radiation impedance seen at the mouth and (2) a device which by virtue of its mouth size and shape controls the directional properties.

V. Salmon has discovered a family of horns with interesting properties to which many common horns belong. In the *exponential* or *hyperbolic exponential* horns the cross-sectional area A is related to the axial distance by

$$A = A_t \left[\cosh \left(\frac{x}{x_0} \right) + T \sinh \left(\frac{x}{x_0} \right) \right]^2 \quad (1)$$

where A is the throat area, x_0 is a constant fixing the axial scale of length, T is a constant determining a member of the general family, and the \cosh and \sinh are the hyperbolic exponential cosine and sine functions, respectively. The longitudinal sections of the *exponential* horns for various values of T are shown in Fig. 6 for straight axis circular horn.

The performance of a horn depends principally on the throat impedance and its dependence on frequency. Although wave reflected from the mouth introduce variations with frequency into the throat impedance, it has been found that the average impedance is close to that of a horn with no reflected wave. The throat impedance in mechanical ohms of catenoidal horns with rigid nonabsorbent walls and negligible reflected waves is given by

$$Z_t = R_t + jX_t \\ = A_t \rho c \frac{[1 - (f/f_c)^2]^{1/2} - j(Tf/f_c)}{1 - (1 - T^2)(f/f_c)^2} \quad (5)$$

where ρc and T have been defined previously, f is the frequency and f_c is the cutoff frequency given by $f_c = c/2x_0$. Thus the reference axial length x

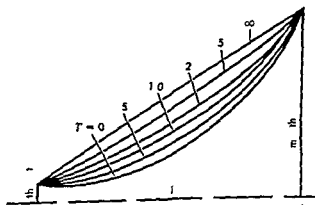


Fig. 6 Longitudinal section of straight axis circular cross-sectional horns of hyperbolic exponential catenoidal family (From K. H. Kennedy, *Radio Engineering Handbook*, 5th ed., McGraw-Hill, 1959).

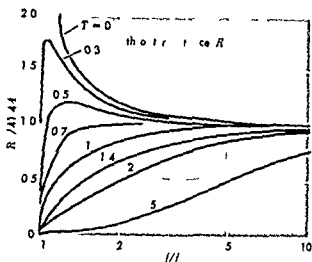


Fig. 7 Frequency dependence of throat resistance for horns of various values of T . Below f_c the resistance is zero. The factor 41.4 is the value of ρc in cgs units at room temperature (From K. H. Kennedy, *Radio Engineering Handbook*, 5th ed., McGraw-Hill, 1959).

is of fundamental importance in determining the behavior of the impedance. In Fig. 7 the behavior of R_t for various values of T is shown.

Speaker systems Two or more identical speakers may be used to improve the low frequency efficiency and increase the permissible input and output powers or by proper relative orientation improve the directional properties. More commonly the two or more units cover complementary frequency range. The more important advantages are (1) improved frequency response because each type of unit covers a moderate range, (2) higher system efficiency for the same reason, (3) improved directivity characteristic because the diaphragm (or horn mouth) for the high frequency range may be made relatively small, (4) improved transient response because many of the artifices used to obtain extended frequency ranges in single units make the transient response worse particularly at high frequencies, (5) reduced intermodulation because large amplitudes are confined to speakers reproducing low frequencies and (6) reduced frequency modulation.

Coaxial units comprise two or less commonly three speaker units mounted on substantially the same axis in an integrated mechanical assembly. Appropriate wave filters or dividing networks control the amplitude and phase of the electrical signal reaching each unit. The term *coaxial speaker* should be reserved for a coaxial unit with its required acoustic radiation controlling structure.

Speaker placement In single channel or monophonic systems, speaker placement is largely controlled by the desirability of uniform response in the listening area. A corner location in a room is desirable to improve the low frequency efficiency and to reduce the angle the high frequency radiation must cover. In stereophonic systems multiple speakers and signal channels are used to reproduce

be partial effects present throughout the
 measurement. In the speaker placement is more
 critical, and the region for satisfactory production
 is relatively limited. The amplifier components
 must employ two channels and two speakers or
 better still. These speakers selected must
 be ideally the most preferably fitting the hither
 and thither of the listening room the speaker

6-10 ft apart. Properly oriented identical
 speakers will give a full pre-recorded phase
 alignment of symmetry between the speaker
 channels, thus mediating an artistic plan of the
 room. Optimum listener positions in the plane
 of symmetry are generally greater than the speaker
 separation by a factor of 1.5-2.5. Treble
 tones are limited by the need for having the room
 mode peaks less than 5 ft farther from the
 listener to prevent the preceding effect in which
 the listener signal is but not in control of the
 arrival of the preceding little by approxi-
 mately 5-30 milliseconds. Proper positioning of the
 speakers is essential for 56-39 ft. For additional
 material on speaker placement see ARCHITECTURAL
 Notes. [H.S.K.]

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 K.H. (ed) *Radiation and Acoustics Handbook*
 1959 F.V.H. *Electrical Acoustics* Th
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 1974 199-218 1946

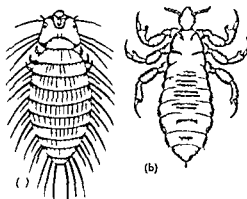
Louping-ill

A disease of sheep capable of producing
 neurological symptoms. It is a highly
 contagious disease of sheep. It is caused
 by a virus. It is transmitted by ticks
 and by direct contact with infected
 animals. It is characterized by
 fever, depression, and sometimes
 paralysis. It is fatal in many cases.

The summer of the Russian tick
 is a disease of sheep. It is caused
 by a virus. It is transmitted by ticks
 and by direct contact with infected
 animals. It is characterized by
 fever, depression, and sometimes
 paralysis. It is fatal in many cases.

Louse

A common pest of sheep. It is a
 small, wingless insect. It feeds
 on the blood of its host. It is
 transmitted by direct contact
 with infected animals. It is
 characterized by intense itching
 and sometimes by the formation
 of sores. It is fatal in many
 cases.



(a) Chuklase M. p. g. l. l. g. 01-004
 (b) H. m. h. d. l. p. d. l. h. m. l. g. h.
 01 (F. m. E. L. P. l. m. F. l. d. b. k. f. N. a. t. l.
 H. s. y. M. G. w. H. l. 1949)

The disease is seasonal. It is
 caused by a virus. It is transmitted
 by ticks and by direct contact with
 infected animals. It is fatal in many
 cases.

The biting louse feeds on the
 blood of its host. It is a common
 pest of sheep. It is transmitted
 by direct contact with infected
 animals. It is characterized by
 intense itching and sometimes by
 the formation of sores. It is fatal
 in many cases.

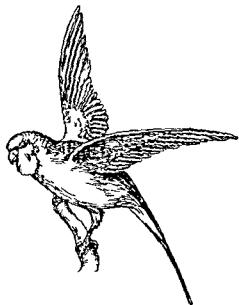
Mollusks are easily killed by
 lindane. They are also killed by
 DDT. The combination is effective
 for a wide range of pests.

The Anoplolepis is a common
 pest of sheep. It is a small, wingless
 insect. It feeds on the blood of its
 host. It is transmitted by direct
 contact with infected animals. It
 is characterized by intense itching
 and sometimes by the formation of
 sores. It is fatal in many cases.

Two species of the genus
Phthirus are common pests of
 sheep. They are small, wingless
 insects. They feed on the blood of
 their hosts. They are transmitted
 by direct contact with infected
 animals. They are characterized by
 intense itching and sometimes by
 the formation of sores. They are
 fatal in many cases.

Lovebird

A name applied to several small parrots or parakeets kept in captivity. They are native either of Africa or South America. The green lovebirds are American. Lovebirds have short beaks and long



The lovebird *Melospiza u. dulcis* length to 8 in (From E. L. Palmer *Feldbook of Natural History* McGraw Hill 1949)

narrow tails. They are easily tamed and make fine gentle pets. They may be taught to talk, although the ability of individuals to learn words varies greatly. See PARROT PSITTACIFORMES [J D B]

Low level counting

The measurement of very small amounts of radioactivity. The instruments used are special modifications of standard radioactivity measurement equipment designed to yield greater detection efficiencies and lower background counting rates than those necessary for ordinary applications. These techniques are applied mainly to the measurement of long-lived natural radioactive isotopes and their daughter products, cosmic ray produced isotopes, and isotopes produced artificially during nuclear explosions.

Because of the statistical error associated with the measurement of radioactivity, accurate assays of samples with small amounts of radioactivity cannot be made in the presence of large amounts of radiation from other sources. This can be readily seen from the relationship between the sample count rate A , its percentage error E , the background count rate A_b , and the length of time the sample is counted t :

$$E \cong \sqrt{\frac{A_b}{tA}} \times 100$$

For example, the percentage error for an overnight measurement of a sample with an activity of 1

count/min in the presence of a background of 90 counts/min is 30%. This error can be decreased by reducing the background or by increasing the sample count rate. Doubling the sample count rate is twice as effective as halving the background. Thus most low level counters are designed (1) to hold as large a sample as it is practical to obtain and to prepare, (2) to record with as high an efficiency as possible the radiations from the sample, (3) to have as low a background counting rate as possible. The instruments which have been most widely used are internal gas counters, solid source β counters, and scintillation counters. For a general discussion of various types of particle counters and a listing of related articles, see PARTICLE DETECTOR.

For internal gas counters, the sample itself is used as the filling gas for a discharge tube such as an ionization chamber, proportional counter, or Geiger counter. Because of the high detection efficiency of such chambers, they are ideal for measuring the radiations from α and weak β emitting isotopes. The counters are designed to hold the available sample in a minimum volume. Where large quantities of sample are available, counters as large as 10 liters have been used with gas pressures up to 5 atmospheres.

For a counting, the background can be largely eliminated by selecting only the most energetic pulses produced in the counter. For weak β detection, however, it is usually impossible to separate the sample pulses from those caused by β particles emitted from the materials making up the counter, by γ rays entering the counter from the outside, and by neutrons and mesons produced by cosmic ray activity.

Gamma ray background. The greater part of the γ ray background can be eliminated by placing the counter in an iron or lead shield. Because of its purity, mercury is sometimes used as an inner shield to remove γ radiation originating from impurities in the iron or lead. Even with an 8 in. iron shield and a 2 in. inner mercury shield, a small γ ray component remains. Since these residual radiations result mainly from the reaction of cosmic rays which have penetrated the shielding, their contribution to the background may change with time. This is because the cosmic ray flux at a given point on the earth's surface varies slightly with solar activity and with atmospheric pressure, the former affecting the amount of magnetic shielding required, and the latter the amount of physical shielding. This time variation introduces a significant uncertainty into the background counting rate in applications involving very small amounts of radiation, such as carbon 14 dating beyond 30,000 years.

Two methods for eliminating this background have been devised. One is to use additional physical shielding to absorb the cosmic rays. H. DeVries found that by adding 30 in. of iron to the counter and by placing a 6-in. neutron absorber such as paraffin plus boric acid between the iron

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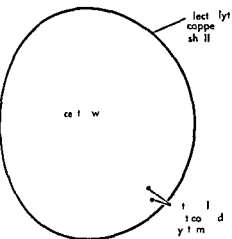


Fig. 1 C s s c t f p p r i o l g t
m h t m l t d e y t m Th l g e d t s
p r e s e t 0 0 1 d m t w s e d t h t h o d
o f t h d a d l t l t d t h m l l d t
t h 0 0 0 1 n d m t w w h h f m t h d f
t h e s e c o t r a Th α d β d t g i n g t
t h l l f t h t w l l l c t j t d
b y γ a y t r k g t h w l l d d b y t h n
t e r m a l y t m d y p d g p l n t h
c e l l t l c t n l l y l l e d

and the in e m e c u r y h i e l d a t e n f l d r e d c t i o
i n t h e a r r a b l o m p n t c a n b e b t a e d T h e
o t h e r m e t h o d s t n t r u t s e t o f t o
d e n e c u n t s w t h t h e g a c o t e t s e l f T h i
m a y b e d o n e w i t h a e e o f w e s s h w n
F i g 1

S e t m o d e a t e g s p r s u r e t h m a j t y
f t h e r e d d γ a y a e d e t e c t d d e o t h e
f a c t t h a t l e t r a n s e e j e c t e d f r m t h e n t e r
a l l s r e j e c t i p l o c c r r g u m l t n l v
n e f t h e r e n a r t h w l l n d n t h e t e r
e l m n a t e m c h f t h y y c o m p n t f t h
b a k g r o u n d W r t n t f t h e f t t h t p t o f
t h γ a y c o m p n e t r e s w i t h t h m l f
a m p l u n t s t h a t l t s f m n t d g t h e
n u m o f u r e s l d t w g h t h e s e t t y g n
b g h t b o t y t h e d c t n b c k g o d
B e t a p a r t i c l e b a c k g r o u n d T h s l i m i t e d b y
c h o o g c o u n t e m a t l w t h l o w a d o t t y
S t e e l c o p p e r a n d p l t s f n t e h a e
d e t t y l w d t t y t h n b a l m u m
g l s T h t r n l n t i n d e n s y t m e d
t γ a y f l e c t n e m i g n y e d l
 β a d t n

N e u t r o n s a n d m e s o n s T h e e p a t l s e n t
e f f e c t s l y r m e d b y l e d h u l d g A
p a f f h l d w l l m o e t h n t d t h
t e r m a l t u c d c e y t e m w l l e m e t h
m e s o n s W h t a l y t m s e d a s t f
G e g a t n b e p l e d a o d t h m p l e
t r a h m a n r t h t n y m e c t
g t h s a m p l e u t e w l l p s s t h r g h t l t
G s n t e C o d t p l e a l e c
t l l y e l l e d A d i a g r a m f a t y p l l w

l e e l g a s c t e d t s s s o c i a t e d s h e l d i n g s
h n i n F i g 2

G a s c o u n t e r s I n t e r n a l g a s o n t r s e u s e d f r
t h e d e t e t i f c m c r a y p r d c e d c r o n 1 4 a n d
t r i t i u m T h e m l l q a n t i t i e s o f g n 3 7 a n d k r y p
t n 8 5 p r o d u c e d b y n u c l e a r e p l n s c a n a l s o b e
m s e d w i t h h d e i c e A l p h a a c t i v i t y f r o m
r d d m d t h o r o n e m a t i o n s f r m a n i u m a d
t h o r i m m i c r a l h a e b e m e a s r e d i n u n s h e l d e d
g s c o u n t e r

S o l i d s o u r c e c o u n t e r s F o r t g β e m i t t e
n d f r i o t o p e s w h h c a t b e p u t i t a u t a b l e
g a e o s f r m l w l e l l d s c e c o t r s a r e f
t e n u e d T h e c o u t e s a r e u s u a l l y e d w d o w p o
p t i o n l c n t e r r G e g e r t b e b t n s o m e
t h e s a m p l e i s m o u t d o n t h e n s i d f a c y l
i d e r w h h i s p l a d w i t h t h e c o u t e r T h e l t e
g a s a m r e f a v o r a b l e s a m p l e t o b a c k g o u d r a t i o
B a k g u n d r e d u c t i o n c o m p l e d m u c h t h e
m e m n e r a s f t h e i t n a l g c o u n t S i n c e
t h c u n t r e m u c h m l l e r m e t a l s h e l d g a d
a i n g f e x t e r l a n t i c d e e t u b e s p r o d u c e a
s f f i c i e n t b k g r o d r e d t o n A n u m b e r f t h
s o t o p e s u c h s s t r n t u m 9 0 p r o d u c e d d u r i n g
n l e a r t i s h a b e e n d e t e c t e d w i t h s u c h e q u i p
m e n t

S c i n t i l l a t i o n c o u n t e r s M a n y l o w l e l d i o
t i t y m e a m e n t a r m a d w i t h c n t l l t i n
c n t e r s T h e e g y o f t h e r a d i a t s c e r t e d
i t l i g h t w h i c h s r e d d b y p h t o m l t p l e
t b e T h i s m e t h d h a p r o e p e c i a l l y u s e f u l
f r t h e d t t i o f m a l l q a n t i t e s f w e k β r
d t i o n f m m p l i l i q u i d f r m T h e s a m p l e
d s s o l e d n i t b l e l q d p h p h a n d
p l a d i n l l d g n d t e f f e t a l l t h e l i g h t p r o
d e d i t n o m e d j a n t p h t o m l u p l e
t b e S h y t e m h a f f i c i e n s a s h g h a s 8 0
p e c e t f o t h e d e t e c t i n o f t h e w e k β p a r t i c l e s
f m b l 4 a d t r i t m

S e t h t y p e f o n t r m r e e n t i e t
y a d t t h a d c h g e t y p t h e m r e m
p h a m t b e p l a c d n p h y l s h e l d g d
g e d t a b o b t h y m p n t f t h e a t u r a l

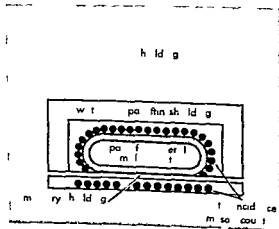


Fig 2 C o c t f t h s h l d g d f l g
l m l t l w l l g t

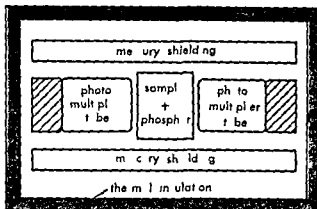


Fig 3 Idealized diagram of a low level liquid scintillation counting system. The two photomultiplier tubes are connected so that only pulses occurring simultaneously in both tubes are recorded. The mal background is further reduced by cooling the whole apparatus in a refrigeration unit.

background. In addition to the background originating from nuclear radiations, electrical noise pulses in the photomultiplier tubes must be eliminated. This has been done by facing two phototubes to the same sample. Only pulses seen simultaneously by both tubes are recorded. Fast electronic circuits greatly reduce the possibility of accidental coincidences between the noise pulses from the individual tubes. Cooling the apparatus in a freezer unit also aids in reducing the noise level. A diagram showing the design of a typical low level liquid scintillation counter is shown in Fig 3. This system has been successfully used for the measurement of a number of isotopes including tritium and radiocarbon. [W.S.B.]

Low temperature physics

A study of the properties of gross matter at such low temperature that the quantum character of the substance becomes observable. Most famous among the effects attributed to the quantum mechanical nature of macroscopic matter are (1) superconductivity (2) superfluid liquid helium (3) magnetic cooling and (4) nuclear orientation. The topic of cryogenics includes the method of producing low temperatures. In addition to the considerable technology involved in refrigeration there is a very important section of low temperature physics concerned with temperature measurement and related instrumentation.

Production of low temperature. Low temperatures such as those of liquid hydrogen (normal boiling point 20.4 K) and liquid helium (normal boiling point 4.2 K) are produced from the gas phase by the use of three mechanical devices: (1) the gas compressor or pump, (2) heat exchangers at several places along the path of flow of the gas, and (3) devices for expanding the gas such as a piston expander and a throttle valve. The cycle is shown schematically in Fig 1 and the flow of helium gas may be traced from the intake of the compressor past the water-cooled heat ex-

changer and into the liquefier. A basic concept to grasp in understanding why the temperature drops when the gas is allowed to expand again is that the process has occurred at constant entropy. Entropy S is a thermodynamic property of the system of gaseous molecules and it is useful to think of its physical meaning as being that of the degree of disorder of the system. The entropy versus temperature plot in Fig 2 shows for the gas system a series of constant pressure curves. The thermodynamic process at the compressor (with water cooling to keep the temperature constant) is shown as the path from point α to the point β . The entropy decrease $\Delta S = \Delta Q/T$ where ΔQ is the heat removed at temperature T during this reversible process that is assumed to be ideal. The diagram also shows an expansion of the gas against the piston as the path from point β to the point γ . This is done at constant entropy so that one may think of the pressure and temperature variables as having shifted suitably to preserve the degree of disorder. Energy was removed from the

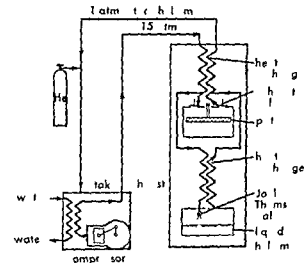


Fig 1 Equipment for producing liquid helium

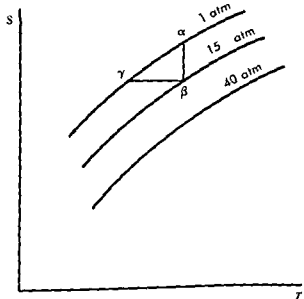


Fig 2 Entropy temperature plot for helium gas

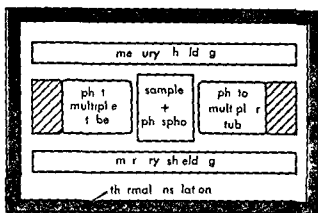


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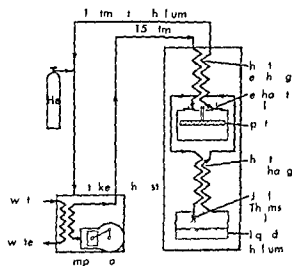


Fig 1 Equipment for producing liquid helium.

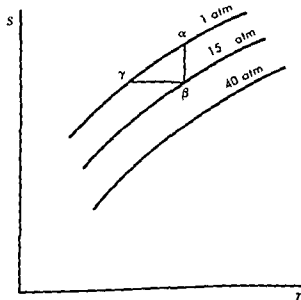


Fig 2 Entropy temperature plot for helium gas.

Nuclear orientation becomes particularly interesting if the oriented nuclei are radioactive. Anisotropy of the intensity of α , β and γ radiation from oriented nuclei has been observed experimentally. These experiments have led to important conclusions in the field of theoretical physics of nuclear interactions. See PARITY (QUANTUM MECHANICS)

The properties of matter at low temperatures can be most surprising. There are a large number of metals which become superconductors at low temperatures such that the electric field E within the metal is zero. The magnetic field described by the induction vector B is also zero within the metal superconductor. Many of these same metals exhibit at low temperatures (and in the normal state) an unusual diamagnetism with a peculiar periodic dependence on the applied magnetic field. The effect was first noted by W. De Haas and P. van Alphen and has been extensively studied by D. Shoenberg. Magnetic nuclear resonance studies on a number of systems have been useful in understanding the properties of matter at low temperature. For example, solid hydrogen is normally composed of 75% ortho molecules and 25% para molecules. The ortho molecules have the magnetic spin moments of the two protons aligned parallel and this

2 1956-1957 F. London *Superfluids* vols 1 and 2, 1950 and 1954 C. F. Squire *Low Temperature Physics* 1953

Low temperature thermometry

The very low temperatures produced by various cryogenic techniques are measured like any others by thermometers. Because conventional thermometers lose their sensitivity as the temperature is reduced, those used in this temperature region tend to be somewhat unfamiliar. The low temperature thermometers nevertheless meet the two main criteria required of all thermometers: reproducibility and a monotonic variation with temperature (preferably according to some simple law) of the thermometric property being measured. Additional conditions such as high sensitivity and independence of the thermometer readings from magnetic field may also be imposed for special applications. Factors such as these as well as the degree to which the instrument must satisfy the two basic criteria mentioned above determine the selection of the thermometer.

For accurate work, low temperature thermometers must be calibrated before each use either at a number of well known fixed and reproducible temperature points or against a suitable standard thermometer. Accurate and relatively simple standard secondary thermometers which have themselves been calibrated against a primary standard are readily available. The primary standards serve as their name implies chiefly to establish secondary thermometer temperature scales, improve existing ones and accurately determine useful fixed points of temperature, for example the triple point of hydrogen.

Low temperature thermometry resolves itself therefore into the basic problem of assigning numbers on the absolute temperature scale to achievable and reproducible low temperature data and the choice and the calibration of suitable instruments for the practical measurement of low temperatures.

Temperatures on the absolute scale are defined in terms of the second law of thermodynamics by the equation $T = dQ/dS$. The absolute temperature of any system is therefore given by the limiting value of the reversible heat absorbed by the system per unit change of its entropy. To determine a temperature on the basis of the above definition would be a formidable task, however. Fortunately it can be shown that valid absolute or thermodynamic temperatures may also be obtained from measurements with a gas thermometer. Although a laborious technique, gas thermometry is ordinarily much simpler than a temperature determination based upon reversible heat and entropy measurements. See ENTROPY.

Gas thermometry above 1 K. Gas thermometry is based upon the concept of an ideal gas for which it may be shown that the pressure p times the volume V equals a constant times the temperature T : $PV = RT$. Hence if a definite amount of gas

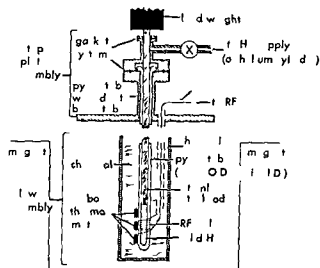


Fig. 4. Apparatus for liquid hydrogen studies.

results in allowed rotational quantum numbers of $J = 1, 3, 5$ and so on. Even in the solid state and even at 1 K the ortho molecules must rotate. By magnetic nuclear resonance studies and by calorimetric studies the detailed way in which the molecule occupies the zero point energy of rotation has been studied. Figure 4 illustrates the apparatus for these studies made on solid hydrogen under pressure. See ABSOLUTE ZERO, CRYOGENIC ENGINEERING, ENTROPY, HELIUM, LIQUEFACTION OF GASES, LOW TEMPERATURE THERMOMETRY, REFRIGERATION, STATISTICAL MECHANICS, SUPERCONDUCTIVITY, SUPERFLUIDITY. [C.F.S.]

Bibliography. S. Flügge (ed.) *Handbuch der Physik* vols 14 and 15, 1956. C. J. Gorter (ed.) *Progress in Low Temperature Physics* vols 1 and

on-temperature thermometers (Cont)

| Temperature-measuring instrument | Applicable temperature range K | Appropriate precision tolerance limit % | Remarks |
|--|---|---|---|
| Magnetic thermometers | For all temperatures below 1 K (here be used for special purposes at higher temperatures) | Depends upon temperature range and humidity range precision about 0.001 | Secondly standard different paramagnetic salt samples may require individual adjustments salts are unstable and must be carefully handled to ensure constancy of the magnetic composition very useful nevertheless for 0.1 to 1 K using a calibration device needed the theoretically operating below 0.1 K the susceptibility serves as a thermometric parameter |
| Dilution paramagnetic material like hydrogen in ethylamine | 10 ⁻² to 1 | | |
| Alkali paramagnetic materials such as copper | 10 ⁻² to 10 | | |

is A the case of a g thermometer no id l
parametric ex ts ny mo e than do a d l
gas a d th el e t bt n r l b l tempe tu e
mea ur m nts f m l to b ut O l k mall c
rectly s r d alty mu t be ap pl ed At lower
tempe t these re tions be m les and
less certain, de ntually mplet ly r hab l
re e b l h o ect b l t tempe t r s th s
range, it has p o ect ne e ary to lize the b s
thermodynamic d f n t of temper t re g n t
the begin ng of th art l e Th d e n the
f l g ay Start ng t n ab sol te t mpe atur
acru tly k n by g s therm etry f r e m
pl T th sc pt b l ty of a par m g e t c alt s
ed ne e f l d n d f m th mea ur me t
m Cure l w co t n t s d te m n d Th n mai
r g th sy t m t n t t mper tur l t m g
r e f l d be b t a ly r a d to s m al e
for ample H The c t p y f th It w l d
or e by n amo t c rately alculable (t
three t m p r t) by a a the m pl cated b t
no eth) t t ble the r t cal formul As, m
the decre e n t p v t be ΔS If th pa am g
no e s a l s w th r nally l t d and lowly de
m g n e z e d e n t p c p r o c s w l l b a r r i e d
A d s c r i b e d a b o e d th tempe atu will
l k The pu b l i c a t y a t th w l w t m p r
t n b e m a e d t p r d e p r l t m
re tur T = C/x N w l e t a m a r d a m n t
l h t ΔQ be d d e d t th s o l a t d p e m n t
r n t t mpe at re to T a m e d b y t
c r i b l y l k th p r e s p e d e d f a r t i g
no f m T d g n g T and so th a
t b o t h f S n d Q n h T n b e b t n d
t g S f u n t f Q The l p of th
c u th n y l d th e t a b s o l u t t mpe t r
t l e d t h Q and S n d f o m th s
u r l m a t i o n, th p r p r e c t t h p r
a l t m p e t r b i a n e d f r m u s c p t b l t y
e m t n b e m a d l the l l t t t y

1. I c r e o b t n e d i n u h m a s u e m n t s r e p r e
e n t d

Low temperature thermometers Low temperature thermometers are used for the measurement of low temperatures. They are of two types: (i) liquid-in-glass thermometers and (ii) resistance thermometers. Liquid-in-glass thermometers are used for the measurement of low temperatures down to -100°C. Resistance thermometers are used for the measurement of low temperatures down to -273°C.

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Lubricant

A ga l q d r l d u e d t o p r e n t e n t c t i
p a t n r e l t e m i n a d t h e r e b y r d u c e i s
t u a n d w a r l n m y m c h n e s c o o l i n g b y t h e
l b r a n t i q l l y i m p r t a t L i k e w i t h
l b r a n t m y b e c l l d u p o t o p v t r u t i n g
d t o p e t d e p t n o f s o l d s o n l o f i t t i g
p a t

Liquid hydrocarbon a thermodynamic
 undlubricating system expander
 applied to the good coolant in the
 petroleum fraction application but f
 peculiar distillates are used for temperat
 less than liquids may be used at very high

Low temperature thermometers

| Temperature-measuring instrument | Applicable temperature range K | Approximate precision at low temperature limit K | Remarks |
|----------------------------------|---|--|--|
| Thermocouples | | | Simple construction low cost wide range small size ease of installation rapid response no heat introduction at point of measurement careful selection of wires necessary to avoid spurious thermal electromotive force because of inhomogeneities in lead in wires rapid loss of sensitivity occurs with decreasing temperature calibrations stable except at lowest temperatures |
| Copper-constantan | 14-350 | 0.1 | Precision at 20 K approximately 0.01 at 90 K 0.01 low temperature calibration may change by 0.5 between coolings |
| 2.1% Cobalt in gold copper | 4-70 | 0.1 | Sensitivity at 20 K about $2\frac{1}{2}$ times that of copper-constantan reproducibility of thermoelectric force between different melts about 7% calibration valid so long as thermocouple not heated above ambient temperature |
| Resistance thermometers | | | Normally conducting metals partial superconductors and semiconductors have been used all introduce heat at point of measurement |
| Platinum | 4-1100 | 0.01 | Basis of International Temperature Scale to 90 K from 90 to 4 K can be accurately calibrated calibration stable with respect to thermal cycling if Pt is extremely pure and if wires supported in strain free configuration at 0 K and above sensitivity is of order of 10^{-2} degrees Pt resistance thermometers rapidly lose sensitivity below this temperature |
| Leaded phospho bronze | 0.03-7 | 0.001 | Sensitivity has been extended to 10^{-4} degrees measured resistance dependent upon measuring current and upon magnetic field magnetic field dependence can be reduced by addition of bismuth difficult to reproduce same temperature coefficient of resistivity in successive wire samples |
| Carbon | 0.0-20 | 0.001 | Highly sensitive capable of measuring temperature changes of the order of 10 degrees resistance dependent upon measuring current but essentially independent of magnetic field |
| Vapor pressure thermometers | Triple point to critical point of all liquefied gases | Approx 0.001 | Secondary standard sensitive slow reading following conditions must be fulfilled to ensure reliable results uniform liquid temperature uniform and known liquid composition (for example ortho-para composition in liquid hydrogen) accurate pressure measurement simple vapor pressure thermometers can be constructed which are rugged reliable and sensitive |
| Gas thermometers | 1-800 | 0.001 | Primary standard requires extreme care in order to obtain accurate results any gas whose behavior is almost ideal may be used in gas thermometer at low temperatures the requirement restricts permissible gases to hydrogen and helium the latter being only suitable for use at lowest temperatures even deuterium gas thermometers have been constructed using rough preliminary pressure indicators to provide reliable low temperature indicators for engineering uses (gas liquefiers) |

temperatures or in places where renewal of liquid lubricants is impossible solid lubricants such as graphite or molybdenum disulfide may be employed

Petroleum lubricants Crude petroleum is an excellent source of lubricants because a very wide range of suitable liquids varying in molecular weight from 150 to over 1000 and in viscosity from light machine oils to heavy gear oil can be produced by various refining processes. Studies carried out by the American Petroleum Institute and others have established that crude petroleum fractions consist of saturates (normal iso and cycloparaffins) monoaromatics which may contain saturated rings as well as saturated side chains substituted polyaromatics hetero compounds containing sulfur nitrogen and oxygen and a phalitic material made up of polycondensed aromatics and hetero compounds. Of these the wax free saturates and monoaromatics are desired in the finished oil in order to obtain the desired viscometric properties and oxidation and thermal stability and so far as possible the other types of compounds are generally removed. Classically only those crudes (so called paraffinic crudes) relatively rich in the desired type of hydrocarbons were used in lubricating oil manufacture. By atmospheric distillation neutrals were produced as distillates and the residual fractions were treated with activated clays which removed a phalitic and hetero material to produce bright stock.

In modern refining vacuum distillation removes the desired hydrocarbons from the asphaltic constituents (which may be present in amounts up to 40% of the total) and gives oils in the required viscosity and boiling range. Extraction of the distilled fractions with solvents such as liquid sulfur dioxide, furfural and phenol permits the removal of the polyaromatic and hetero compounds to improve viscosity temperature characteristics (viscosity index VI) and stability of the oil. Dewaxing removes the high melting paraffins.

If the viscosity index of the oil is not important for a particular application the most reactive polyaromatics and hetero compounds may be removed by treatment with concentrated sulfuric acid. In either case the oil is treated finally with an active clay to remove trace amounts of residual acids and resins (heterocyclics).

Small amounts of heterocyclics such as substituted benzothienophenes, quinolines and indoles may remain in the finished oil. The sulfur containing compounds serve the useful purpose of acting as natural antioxidants. The nitrogen compounds may be harmful in certain applications because of their propensity to form deposits on hot surfaces and are generally reduced to low concentrations.

The table lists typical specification data for lubricants in several applications. It will be noted that viscosity is a determining factor in lubricant selection. Machines are generally designed to operate on the lowest practicable viscosity since the lighter fluids give lower friction and better heat transfer rates. However, if loads or temperatures are high

Viscosity of oils for various applications

| Application | Viscosity centistokes at 5 C (77 F) | Primary function |
|---------------------------|---|---|
| Engines | | |
| SAE 10W | 60-90 | Lubricate pistons, cylinders, valves, bearings, cool pistons, prevent deposit on metal surfaces |
| SAE 0 | 90-180 | |
| SAE 30 | 180-30 | |
| SAE 40 | 30-450 | |
| SAE 50 | 450-800 | |
| Gears | | |
| SAE 80 | 100-400 | Lubricate internal combustion engines, hypodermic gears, worm gears, cool gear cases, samplings |
| SAE 90 | 400-1000 | |
| SAE 140 | 1000-∞ | |
| Aviation engine oils | 0-700 | |
| Trucks convertors | 80-140 | Lubricate transmission |
| Hydraulic | 35 | Transmit power |
| Refrigerator oil | 30-60 | Lubricate compressor pump |
| Steam boiler | 55-300 | Lubricate reduction gear |
| Steam cylinder oil | 1500-3300 | Lubricate in presence of steam at high temperatures |

more viscous and less volatile lubricants are required. Change of viscosity with temperature is often of considerable practical importance and it is customary to express this in terms of viscosity index, an arbitrarily chosen scale on which an oil from a Pennsylvania crude high in saturate and monoaromatic content is assigned a value of 100 and those containing a relatively large amount of cyclohydrocarbons both paraffinic and aromatic (from naphthenic crudes) will be in the 0-50 viscosity index range. As already described the refiner can produce oils of high viscosity index from naphthenic stocks but yields may be low.

Multigrade oils In order to standardize on nomenclature for oils of differing viscosity the Society of Automotive Engineers (SAE) has established viscosity ranges for the various SAE designations (see table). By the use of relatively large amounts of additives for improving viscosity index it is possible to formulate one oil which will fall within the range of more than one SAE viscosity grade, the so called multigrade oil illustrated by Fig. 1. Since all viscosity index improvers also increase viscosity it is necessary to use a base oil of low viscosity to formulate such oils. Since the viscosity increasing effect of the additive decreases with increase in shear rate an artificially thickened oil of this type behaves as a light oil in engine parts under high shear and thereby friction is low but acts as a heavier oil in low shear region or at higher temperatures. However, volatility and ability to protect high shear parts from rubbing set limits to the use of light oils in the formulations.

Additives for lubricating oils It is often desirable to add various chemicals to lubricating oil to improve their physical properties or to obtain some needed improvement in performance.

peed PTFE lid n it elf or on m tal
h effie t f fr t in the l we t range
absered to bounda y lubricat on (ab t 005)
The fricu riest alue comm n for other plas-
t fr the liding se d p e tic l lue
dib hgh fr t n tends t per t when ret n
z il peed

It lly that th is the m l effect the i c i
d f h h pr m ted by the extremely l w
therm l du t y f PTFE d it can be com-
bated t n derable extent by ing the PTFE
m pp m tix The e f s u h a m a t i x l o
educe th ea hich w ld ceur with PTFE
al e. Th t p of tr tur i ed s a elf
lab t d bear m te l

Greases Al b c t ng gre e a lid r em
f d l b r e t m p r g a th k e n i g (or gel
l g) g n t n liquid l b r i a n t. Other ino red e t
m p r t g pec l p pe t i e m y b e i l u d e d A n
u p p o r t a t p p r t y f a g r e e i t s s o l d n a t r e t
t h a a y l d l T h e n b l e g r e a e t r i n
n e l l f a b e a r i n g s e m b l y w i t h o t h e a d f
e p e e s l s t p d i t o n c a l a g n t h
i n g r e s f m i t e a n d d t n d t e m a i n r t i
l a r t e s d f f r d p o t e c t o g t m i t u r
o n e s p e c i l l y d u r h t d w n p e r o d

The g l l g a t u e d n m t g r a r e f a t t
a r d s o a p f l t h m d u m c a l u m a d a l m i
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o c l l y T h e f i t t y d e m p l o y d a e o l
f l m t e t e a d t h e r e b y l i d d
m e d i m m l f i h a n d e g e t b l e o l T h e
l s o a p a g r e s i m l t e d b y p h a e h n g e s t r

m e l t n g p t s) t h a t o c r i n t h e r n g e 50-700 C
B e c a u e m a n y a p p l i c a t i o n s r e q u i r p e r a t i n a b e
t h s t e m p e r a t u r e g r e a s e s h a b e e n i n t r o d u c e d
w h i c h a r e t h c k e d b y h i g h m e l t i n g s o l i d s u c h a
l a y l i c o r g a n i c d y e s r o m t i c a m d e a n d
e a d a t e I n t h e e c a e t h e u p p e r l i n i t o f
a p p l c a t i n e t b y t h e o i l t i l t y o r b y t h e o x i d a
t i o n a n d t h e r m a l s t a b i l i t y o f t h e b a s e o i l T o e x t e n d
t h e p e r t i n g r a n g e t o x t r e m e o f h i g h d i l w
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t o n n h b i t E P a n t s a n d a n t i u t a d d t i s
e f r e q u e n t l y u s e d i n g r e a s V l t i l t y f t h e
b e o l i p a r t i c u l a r l y i m p o r t a n t i n g a e b e
c a u e t i s o n t a n t l y p o d a t h i n f i l m n
t h e b a r g u f a c e s

Structure of greases The g e l l i g a g e t i n m t
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f t h l n g t h T h f i b e t h c k n t h e o i l b y f o r m
g n t w k b r h e a p s t r u c t e n w h i t h t h e
l i h e l d b y c a p i l l a r y f e s F a g i e n c o n c e n
t a t n f a p t h e l g e t h e l n g t h t o d a m e t e r
t i f t h e f i b e t h e g e a t i t h e p o b i l i t y f
n e t w o r k j u t n f r m a t n d t h e h a d e i t h e
g e H w e r n o t a l l a p f r m s h s t a l l n e
f i b e l u m n m a p a n t b l e x c e p t n T h e
e d e e t a t l m i n m o a p m o l u l e s f m
e t w o r k k t t h t f m e d b y p l y r u e m l c u l e
N s o p t h c k n e r s a e p r e e n t a m l l s o m t
p a r t l e m h m l l e t h n l μ i l e a z e

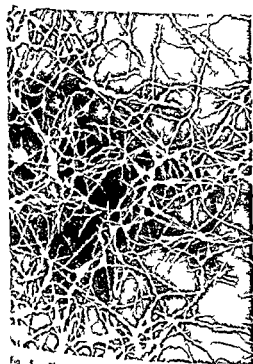


Fig. 5. Electron micrograph of soap film. (a) Soap film. (b) Dye-stained soap film.

upon to keep engine parts (oil screens, ring grooves) clean and this is accomplished by the use of so-called detergent oils. Performance is illustrated in Fig 3.

The most commonly used dispersants are alkaline earth salts. Of these the most successful have been the salts of petroleum sulfonic acids, phenates, alacylates, thiophosphates and oxidized olefin phosphorus pentasulfide reaction products. These materials owe their effectiveness partly to their surface activity which ensures that foreign particles are kept in suspension in the lubricating oil and partly to their alkalinity which enables them to neutralize combustion acids that would otherwise catalyze the formation of lacquers.

Polymeric additives have been introduced for dispersancy. They are copolymers of a long chain methacrylate for example lauryl methacrylate and a nitrogen containing olefin such as vinyl pyrrolidone. These nonash dispersants are superior to the metal containing additives for low temperature operation and can be used very effectively in motor oils. Because they are less alkaline than metallic additives the polymeric additives are less effective in diesel engines where fuel often lead to combustion products which are much more acid than those from gasoline.

Boundary lubricants. Boundary conditions are encountered in many metal forming processes in which the pressures required to deform the metal are too high to allow an oil film to form. In such applications fatty oils such as palm oil or lubricants containing fatty materials are employed to reduce the friction and wear. The fatty acids react with the metal surface to form a tenacious soap film which provides effective lubrication up to temperatures approaching the melting point of the soap, usually about 120°C. See MACHINABILITY (METALS).

Synthetic oils. During World War II synthetic lubricants were extensively employed by Germany as substitutes for mineral lubricants which were in short supply. Some of these, such as the ester oils, were in fact superior to mineral lubricants in some

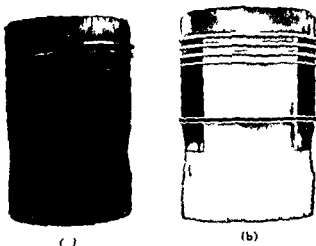


Fig 3 The effect of dispersants on cleanliness. (a) Ordinary oil. (b) Same oil containing dispersant additive.

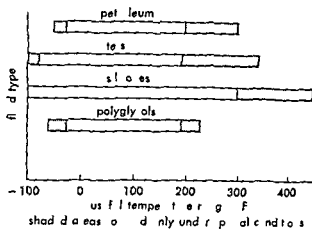


Fig 4 Useful temperature range of synthetic oils.

applications. Since the war the use of synthetics for special applications where their performance justifies the higher cost has steadily increased. Their main advantage is that they have a greater operating range than a mineral oil (Fig 4). Esters such as 2-ethylhexyl sebacate containing oxidation inhibitors and sometimes mild extreme pressure additives are used as lubricants for aircraft jet engines. Silicone, although ideal with regard to thermal stability and viscosity characteristics, are poor lubricants for steel on steel and this has restricted their use, although they are invaluable in some applications. Another class of widely used synthetic oils are the polyglycols, such as polypropylene and ethylene oxides. These polymers are available in a wide molecular weight range and they vary considerably in solubility in water and hydrocarbons. Thus water base lubricants may be formulated which are employed when a fire hazard exists.

Solid lubricants. The most useful solid lubricants are those with a layer structure in which the molecular platelets will readily slide over each other. Graphite, molybdenum disulfide, talc and boron nitride possess this property.

The principal difficulty encountered with the use of solid lubricants is that of maintaining an adequate lubricant layer between the sliding metal surfaces. If the solid lubricant is applied as a suspension in a fluid, there is a tendency for the particles to settle out and they may not reach the region where they are required. If they are applied as a thick paste to overcome the tendency to settle out, it is frequently difficult to force the paste through the narrow clearances between the sliding surface. A third method is to pretreat the surface with a relatively thick film of solid lubricant suspended in a resin and bake it in. Difficulties may then arise through progressively increasing clearances as the film wears and of course there is no method for its continuous renewal. Materials such as graphite and molybdenum disulfide oxidize quite rapidly in air at 400°C. Unless air can be excluded, therefore, alternative solid lubricants will be required at temperatures greatly in excess of this.

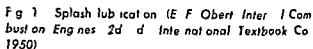
A unique type of solid lubricant is provided by the plastic polytetrafluoroethylene (PTFE). At

Mechanical properties of greases When the applied stress exceeds the yield stress the grease flows and the viscosity falls rapidly with further increase of stress until it reaches a value only a little higher than that of the base oil. This fall in viscosity is largely reversible since it is caused by the rupture of network junctions which following the release of stress can reform. However continued vigorous shearing usually results in the rupture of fibers and permanent softening of the grease. Here certain greases such as those derived from lithium salts of hydroxy acids are superior to other types although the manner of grease preparation exercises considerable influence.

A number of methods exist for the measurement of yield stress and viscosity at various temperatures. One of the oldest of grease test still universally used is a consistency (hardness) test in which the depth of penetration of a cone of standard weight and dimensions is determined. However few of the many tests used are helpful in predicting the performance of a grease. Consequently in development work recourse is made to actual performance data and to the use of rigs that simulate field conditions. See BEARING ANTI-FRICTION GEL.

PETROLEUM PROCESSING [RGL]

Lubrication engine



Lubricant Engines are generally lubricated with petroleum base oils containing chemical additives to improve their natural properties. Refining methods and composition may be varied to suit special engine design operating conditions. Perhaps the most important oil property is the absolute viscosity which is a measure of the force required to move one layer of the oil film over another. With low viscosity a protecting oil film between the parts is not formed. With high viscosity too much power is required to shear the oil film. In addition the flow of oil through the engine is retarded.

Lubrication system The function of the lubrication system is to supply clean oil cooled to the proper viscosity to critical points in the engine where the motion of the parts produces hydrodynamic oil films to separate and support the rubbing surfaces. In all but the most primitive lubrication systems the oil which has been

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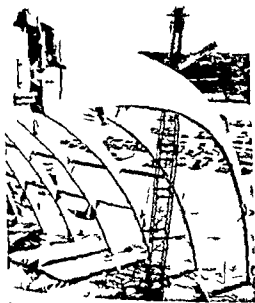


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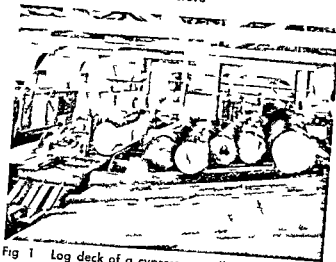


Fig 1 Log deck of a cypress sawmill in Florida showing log conveyor on right carriage with log being sawed at left and at rear the bandsaw house. The sawyer is out of view (Photograph by A Lesche and Sons Rope Co)

kind is most readily kept in good cutting condition. However they are the most wasteful because their kerf or cutting thickness often is $\frac{1}{4}$ in which means that for every four boards 1 in thick that are cut another possible one is lost in the form of sawdust.

Logs enter a mill on a conveyor chain and are stored on a log deck. They then are placed on a carriage where they are positioned and moved against the saw. The carriage is powered by a cable and drum or by a large steam piston. As boards are sawed off the log is repositioned for the next cut by a setter who rides the carriage. The sawyer standing by the saw operates the carriage, the log turning mechanism, and the device that moves logs from the deck to the carriage (Fig 1). Some newer carriages have set works that the sawyer operates by remote control. All of the operations are quickly performed and there is little unproductive time with skillful sawyers. Logs are turned as sawing progresses to obtain the maximum amount of the better grades of lumber. As the boards are sawed they are conveyed to the edger if they are to be ripped (made narrower) or they move directly to the trimmer where they are cross-cut to the correct length.

From the trimmer the boards go to the sorting table where they are separated by grade, size, and species. At some mills the boards are dipped in an anti-septic solution to prevent fungus staining while drying. Many of the larger mills use resaw to speed production. With them thick cants (large size dimension timbers) are cut on the head saw and the edges then go to a resaw gang saw or to a band resaw that cuts them to final thicknesses. Wood waste if needed for fuel is hogged (mechanically chipped) and sent to the fuel house. The large wood requirements of the pulp and paper industry have created a market for sawmill waste in the form of chips (see PAPER AND PAPER PRODUCTS, WOOD FIBER PRODUCTS). Much wood formerly used uneconomically is now converted

into pulp chips and old bark is not acceptable for pulping (see BARK). Therefore at mills that convert their waste to pulp chips logs are debarked before being resawed. There are several types of mechanical and hydraulic debarking machines.

Sawmills range in size from small portable mills cutting 6000-8000 board ft/day to large ones with two or more headsaws and resaws cutting several hundred thousand board ft/day. At portable mills logs are skidded directly to the log deck.

Lumber seasoning. Lumber is not fully processed for use until it has been dried to a moisture content conforming to that of the place it will be used. Otherwise it will shrink or swell and may decay. Lumber is air dried in stacks in a yard where air can circulate through it (Fig 2). When air dried it contains about 18% moisture in terms of its oven dry weight. Air drying requires from 3 weeks to a year or more depending on the kind of wood, its thickness, and the weather. For faster drying and to attain lower moisture contents than are possible by air drying, dry kilns are used. The chambers in which stacked lumber is placed, air circulation is forced, and temperature and humidity

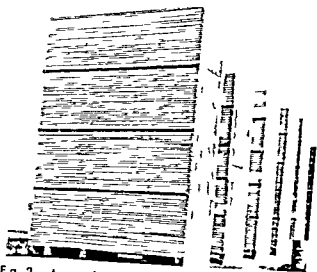


Fig 2 A pine drying yard in North Carolina (Photograph by Woodard Walke Lumber Co)

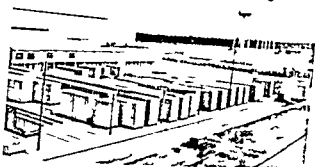


Fig 3 A battery of dry kilns at a southern sawmill. The sawmill is in the background. The kilns are in the foreground. The kilns are used for drying lumber. (Photograph by K by L. M. C. P.)

Lumen

The unit of luminous flux. It is defined as the luminous flux emitted within a unit solid angle (1 steradian) by a point source having a uniform intensity of 1 candle. It follows therefore that a light source having an intensity of 1 candle in every direction will be emitting a total luminous flux of 4π lumens.

The lumen is also equal to the luminous flux received on a unit surface all points of which are at a unit distance from a point source having a uniform intensity of 1 candle.

The output of light sources is given in lumen. See CANDLE LUMINOUS FLUX [R C P]

Lumen hour

The unit of quantity of light. It is the quantity of light (luminous flux) radiated or received for a period of 1 hour by a flux of 1 lumen. Similarly other units that can be used to measure the quantity of light are the lumen second or the million lumen hour.

The symbol of the lumen hour is Q . The equation is

$$Q = \int F dt$$

where t is time in hours and F is the luminous flux measured in lumens. See LUMEN LUMINOUS ENERGY PHOTOMETRY [R C P]

Luminaire

An electric lighting fixture, wall bracket, portable lamp, or other complete lighting unit designed to contain one or more electric lighting sources and associated reflectors, refractors, housings, and such support for these items as is necessary.

Luminaires for general lighting are classified by the International Commission on Illumination in accordance with the percentages of total luminaire output emitted above and below the horizontal into direct or indirect types with intermediate classifications of semi-direct, semi-indirect, and general diffuse or direct-indirect.

Luminaires for floodlighting or for street or highway lighting are classified according to beam spread or according to candle power distribution patterns for the specific applications. See ILLUMINATION [W B B]

Luminance

The luminous intensity of any surface in a given direction per unit of projected area of the surface viewed from that direction. The International Commission on Illumination defines it as the quotient of the luminous intensity in the given direction of an infinitesimal element of the surface containing the point under consideration by the orthogonally projected area of the element on a plane perpendicular to the given direction. Simply it is the luminous intensity per unit area. Luminance is also called photometric brightness.

Since the candle is the unit of luminous intensity, the luminance or photometric brightness of a sur-

face may be expressed in candles/cm², candles/in.², and so forth.

Mathematically, luminance B may be found from

$$B = dI / (dA \cos \theta)$$

where θ is the angle between the line of sight and the normal to the surface area A considered and I is the luminous intensity. See LUMEN LUMINOUS INTENSITY.

The tilb is a unit of luminance (photometric brightness) equal to 1 candle/cm². It is often used in Europe, but the practice in America is to use the term candle/cm.² in its place.

The apostilb is another unit of luminance sometimes used in Europe. It is equal to the luminance of a perfectly diffusing surface emitting or diffusing light at the rate of 1 lumen/m². See PHOTOMETRY [R C P]

Luminescence

Light emission that cannot be attributed merely to the temperature of the emitting body. Various types of luminescence are often distinguished according to the source of the exciting energy. When the light energy emitted results from a chemical reaction, such as in the slow oxidation of phosphorus at ordinary temperatures, the emission is called chemiluminescence. When the luminescent chemical reaction occurs in a living system, such as in the glow of the firefly, the emission is called bioluminescence. In the foregoing two examples part of the energy of a chemical reaction is converted into light. There are also types of luminescence that are initiated by the flow of some form of energy into the body from the outside. According to the source of the exciting energy, the luminescences are designated as cathodoluminescence or electronoluminescence if the energy comes from electron bombardment, radioluminescence or roentgenoluminescence if the energy comes from x-rays, or from γ rays, photoluminescence if the energy comes from ultraviolet, visible, or infrared radiation, and electroluminescence if the energy comes from the application of an electric field. By attaching a suitable prefix to the word luminescence, similar designations may be coined to characterize luminescence excited by other agents. Since a given substance can frequently be made to luminesce by a number of different external exciting agents, and since the atomic and electronic phenomena that cause luminescence are basically the same regardless of the mode of excitation, the subdivision of luminescence phenomena into the foregoing categories is essentially only a matter of convenience, not a fundamental distinction.

Fluorescence and phosphorescence. A second basis frequently used for characterizing luminescence is its persistence after the source of exciting energy is removed. Many substances continue to luminesce for extended periods after the exciting energy is shut off. The delayed light emission (afterglow) is generally called phosphorescence, the light emitted during the period of excitation is generally called fluorescence. In an exact sense this

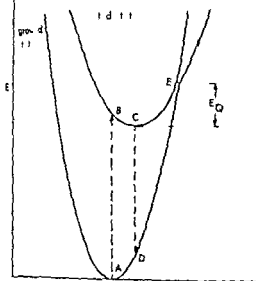


Fig. 2. Coordinates of points A, B, C, D, E. The energy level E is plotted against temperature T . The minimum of the curve is at point A. Points B and C are on the left side of the minimum, and points D and E are on the right side.

curves the energy of the ground state is shown to vary parabolically as some function of the distance from the minimum. This is the case for the energy levels of the system. The energy levels are shown in Fig. 2. The energy level E is plotted against temperature T . The minimum of the curve is at point A. Points B and C are on the left side of the minimum, and points D and E are on the right side.

and absorption bands that are observed. An analysis of the so-called "band" widths of the band (usually measured in energy units between the points at which the emission or absorption is half its maximum value) should verify the quantum root of the temperature. For many systems this relationship is valid at temperatures near and above room temperature.

Two other phenomena which can be explained on the basis of the model described in Fig. 2 are temperature changes of luminescence and the variation of the decay time of luminescence with temperature. In Fig. 3 a curve of temperature quenching to the minimum in thallium excited by ultraviolet light is shown. At low temperatures there is very little change in brightness with temperature but at elevated temperatures the luminescence decays rapidly. On the basis of Fig. 2 this is interpreted as meaning that the thermal vibration becomes sufficiently intense to raise the system to point E from point E the system can fall to the ground state by emitting small amount of heat, or faster rate than if point E is at an energy E_0 above the minimum of the excited state curve. It may be shown that the efficiency of luminescence is given by

$$\eta = 1 + C \exp(-E_0/kT) \quad (1)$$

where C is a constant k is Boltzmann's constant, and T the temperature in the Kelvin scale. By fitting an expression of this form to the data of Fig. 3 a value of 0.60 electron volts is found for E_0 .

The temperature quenching tends to occur most strongly at temperatures that would have stayed the excited state for a relatively long period of time. As a result the decay time of the emission in the temperature region is strongly characterized by the nature of the transitions. The ground state has been reported to be the decay time of the luminescence is observed to decrease

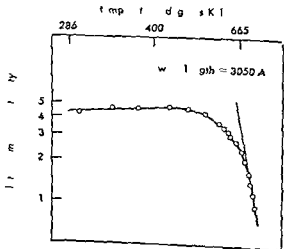


Fig. 3. Variation of the brightness of the luminescence with temperature. The wavelength is 3050 Å.

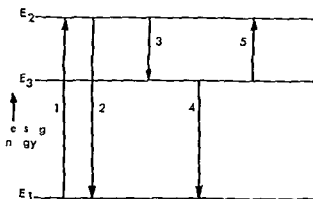


Fig. 1 Schematic representation of energy levels and electronic transitions in an atomic gas. E_1 ground state, E_2 and E_3 excited states. 1 excitation, 2 emission of resonance luminescence, 3 radiationless transition to lower excited state, 4 luminescence emission of transition $E_3 \rightarrow E_1$ is allowed (if it is not allowed, 4 does not occur and E_3 is called a metastable state), 5 stimulation of atom back to emitting state.

energy $\Delta E = E_2 - E_1$. If this excitation is to be produced by the absorption of light, the energy of the acting light photon E_{photon} must equal ΔE . The frequency of the exciting light must therefore be $\nu = E_{\text{photon}}/h = (E_2 - E_1)/h$ and the wavelength of the exciting light must be $\lambda_{\text{exc}} = hc/(E_2 - E_1)$ where h is Planck's constant and c is the velocity of light. In an isolated atom this extra energy cannot be dissipated and is emitted as radiation when the atom eventually returns to its ground state. The emitted light will therefore again correspond in energy to ΔE and will have a wavelength $\lambda_{\text{emit}} = \lambda_{\text{exc}}$. When $\lambda_{\text{emit}} = \lambda_{\text{exc}}$, the emitted light is sometimes referred to as resonance luminescence or resonance radiation. For further details see ATOMIC STRUCTURE AND SPECTRA.

If a large number of atoms are excited and the excitation then removed, the luminescence intensity will decrease with time exponentially according to the equation $I = I_0 e^{-t/\tau}$ where I is the intensity of luminescence at a time t after removal of the excitation, I_0 is the intensity at $t = 0$ and τ is the average time required by an atom to make a spontaneous luminescent transition. The quantity τ is independent of temperature and it is this temperature independence that is emphasized in the more precise definition of fluorescence given earlier. If the transition between the energy levels E_1 and E_2 is highly probable (a so-called permitted or allowed transition), τ is very small, of the order of 10^{-8} sec for transitions involving visible light.

The excited atom can also lose a certain amount of energy and fall to an energy state E' of intermediate energy between E_1 and E_2 . This can happen, for example, if the excited atom collides with another atom. If the transition from state E' to the ground state E_1 can occur with a reasonably high probability, fluorescence will occur starting from this intermediate excited state. In this case the fluorescent wavelength $\lambda_{\text{emit}} = hc/(E' - E_1)$.

Since $(E_3 - E_1)$ is smaller than $(E_2 - E_1)$, the fluorescence in this case will be of longer wavelength than the resonance radiation.

If, however, a transition between state E' and state E_1 is highly improbable (a so-called forbidden transition), state E' is known as a metastable state. The atom can remain in this state for long periods of time and cannot return to the ground state with the emission of radiation. Luminescence can occur under these circumstances only if the atom regains the energy $(E' - E_1)$ by a collision with another atom or by some other process. Once the atom has been brought back to state E' , a transition to the ground state is again allowed and luminescence corresponding to $(E' - E_1)$ will be emitted. The existence of metastable states like E_3 explains the delayed emission termed phosphorescence. The atom may spend a considerable amount of time in such a state before some external influence causes it to return to an emitting state such as E_2 in which case the luminescence is correspondingly delayed and appears as an afterglow. In order for the atom to get from E_3 to E_2 it must absorb energy somehow. The rate of return to the emitting state and hence the duration of the afterglow will therefore depend to a very large extent on temperature. At high temperatures the atoms will be excited back to the emitting state rapidly and there will be a bright afterglow of short duration. At lower temperatures the atom will be excited back to the emitting state very slowly and the afterglow will be of long duration but of low intensity. This temperature dependence is the basis for the more precise definition of phosphorescence given earlier.

The principles illustrated in the foregoing discussion may be extended with little modification to the case where the primary absorption or excitation act completely removes an electron from an atom (that is, ionizes the atom) instead of merely raising the atom to an excited state. Under these conditions the electron can be trapped temporarily by another atom and its return to the parent atom can also be delayed by this mechanism.

CONFIGURATION COORDINATE CURVE MODEL

Luminescence in atomic gases is adequately described by the concept of atomic spectroscopy but luminescence in molecular gases in liquid and in solids introduces two major new effects which need special explanation. One is that the emission band appears on the long wavelength (low energy) side of the absorption band; the other is that emission and absorption often show as bands hundreds of angstroms wide instead of as the lines found in atomic gases.

Both of these effects may be explained by using the concept of configuration coordinate curves illustrated in Fig. 2. As in the case of atomic gases, the ground and excited states represent different electronic states of the luminescent center that is, the region containing the atom and/or molecule involved in the luminescent transition. On these

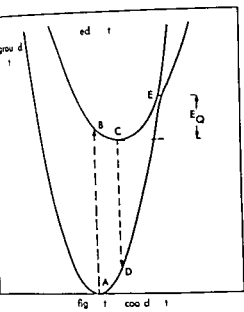


fig 1 coord t

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1 t c l t r n s i t n T l e x p l a i n t h e b r a d m i n
 d a b s o r p t i o n b n d t h a t a r e b r e d A n a l y
 i s f t h s o r t r e d i s t a t t h e w d t h f i l e l a n d
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 g r u n d t t e b y m i t t g a m l l a m u t f h e a t ,
 r f r a d e r d i a t I f p o t e l a t a n e n e r g y E_Q
 b o e t h m i n m m f t h e e x c i t e d s t a t e r e , i t
 m a y b e l w n t h a t t h e e f f i c i e n c y η f l u m i n e s c e
 n c e g a n b y

$$\eta = 1 + C \cdot p(-E_Q/kT) \quad (1)$$

w h e r e C a c c n t t k i s B l i t z m a n n c o n s t a n t
 a n d T i s t h e t m p e r a t u r e i n t h e K e l v i n s c a l e B y
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T h i s t m p e r a t u r e q u e h g e d t o c r m t
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 i n t h t m p e r a t u r e e g l a r g l y h r
 t i t i c f e t i n w h i c h t r a n s i t i o n s t h e
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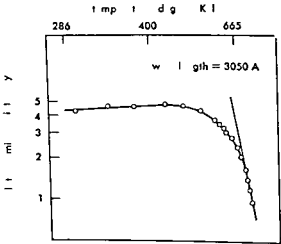


Fig 3 V t f t h b g h t f t h l l m o t
 t d p t m h l d p h p h w i t h t m p t

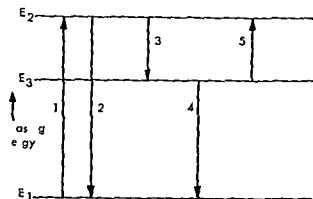


Fig 1 Schematic representation of energy levels and electronic transitions in an atomic gas. E_1 ground state E_2 and E_3 excited states 1 excitation 2 emission of resonance luminescence 3 radiationless transition to lower excited state 4 luminescence emission from $E_3 \rightarrow E_1$ is allowed (if it is not allowed 4 does not occur and E_3 is called a metastable state) 5 stimulation of atom back to emitting state

energy $\Delta E = E_2 - E_1$. If this excitation is to be produced by the absorption of light the energy of the acting light photon E_{photon} must equal ΔE . The frequency of the exciting light must therefore be $\nu = E_{\text{photon}}/h = (E_2 - E_1)/h$ and the wavelength of the exciting light must be $\lambda_{\text{exc}} = hc/(E_2 - E_1)$ where h is Planck's constant and c is the velocity of light. In an isolated atom this extra energy cannot be dissipated and is emitted as radiation when the atom eventually returns to its ground state. The emitted light will therefore again correspond in energy to ΔE and will have a wavelength $\lambda_{\text{emitted}} = \lambda_{\text{exc}}$. When $\lambda_{\text{emitted}} = \lambda_{\text{exc}}$ the emitted light is sometimes referred to as resonance luminescence or resonance radiation. For further details see ATOMIC STRUCTURE AND SPECTRA.

If a large number of atoms are excited and the excitation then removed the luminescence intensity will decrease with time exponentially according to the equation $I = I_0 e^{-t/\tau}$ where I is the intensity of luminescence at a time t after removal of the excitation I_0 is the intensity at $t = 0$ and τ is the average time required by an atom to make a spontaneous luminescent transition. The quantity τ is independent of temperature and it is this temperature independence that is emphasized in the more precise definition of fluorescence given earlier. If the transition between the energy levels E_1 and E_2 is highly probable (a so-called permitted or allowed transition) τ is very small of the order of 10^{-8} sec for transitions involving visible light.

The excited atom can also lose a certain amount of energy and fall to an energy state E_3 of intermediate energy between E_1 and E_2 . This can happen for example if the excited atom collides with another atom. If the transition from state E_3 to the ground state E_1 can occur with a reasonably high probability fluorescence will occur starting from this intermediate excited state. In this case the fluorescent wavelength $\lambda_{\text{emitted}} = hc/(E_3 - E_1)$.

Since $(E_3 - E_1)$ is smaller than $(E_2 - E_1)$ the fluorescence in this case will be of longer wavelength than the resonance radiation.

If however a transition between state E_2 and state E_1 is highly improbable (a so-called forbidden transition) state E_3 is known as a metastable state. The atom can remain in this state for long periods of time and cannot return to the ground state with the emission of radiation. Luminescence can occur under these circumstances only if the atom regains the energy $(E_2 - E_1)$ by a collision with another atom or by some other process. Once the atom has been brought back to state E_2 a transition to the ground state is again allowed and luminescence corresponding to $(E_2 - E_1)$ will be emitted. The existence of metastable states like E_3 explains the delayed emission termed phosphorescence. The atom may spend a considerable amount of time in such a state before some external influence causes it to return to an emitting state such as E_2 in which case the luminescence is correspondingly delayed and appears as an afterglow. In order for the atom to get from E_3 to E_2 it must absorb energy somehow. The rate of return to the emitting state and hence the duration of the afterglow will therefore depend to a very large extent on temperature. At high temperatures the atoms will be excited back to the emitting state rapidly and there will be a bright afterglow of short duration. At lower temperatures the atom will be excited back to the emitting state very slowly and the afterglow will be of long duration but of low intensity. This temperature dependence is the basis for the more precise definition of phosphorescence given earlier.

The principles illustrated in the foregoing discussion may be extended with little modification to the case where the primary absorption or excitation act completely remove an electron from an atom (that is ionizes the atom) instead of merely raising the atom to an excited state. Under these conditions the electron can be trapped temporarily by other atoms and its return to the parent atom can also be delayed by this mechanism.

CONFIGURATION COORDINATE CURVE MODEL

Luminescence in atomic gases is adequately described by the concept of atomic electronic transitions. In molecular gases in liquid and solid introduce two major new effects which need special explanation. One is that the emission band appears on the long wavelength (low energy) side of the absorption band and the other is that emission and absorption often have bands hundreds of angstroms wide instead of as the line found in atomic gases.

Both of these effects may be explained by using the concept of configuration coordinate. It is illustrated in Fig 2. As in the case of atoms, the ground and excited states represent different electronic states of the luminescent material. In the region containing the atom and the transition involved in the luminescent transition. On the

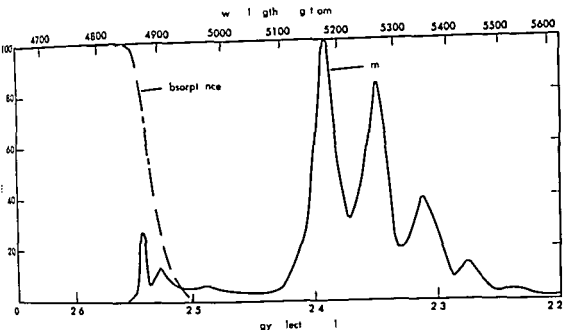
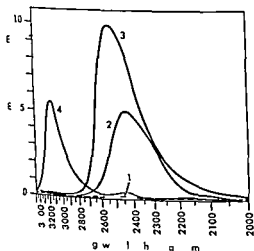


Fig. 4. The absorption (100 m p. t. f. m.) of the monomer of dimethylidene 1,4 K

low dielectric constant materials
while the logarithmic interaction modes for
loosely bound lectins high dielectric materials.

SENSITIZED LUMINESCENCE

4 p o c e s f o d b l t e r e t o c c u i n y s
t e r m s h e r e n e t y p e o f c i t i r a b s o b s t a n c e
u g l i g h t a n d t f e r i t e c r g y t a s e c n d
t y p e f i c u t i h c h t h e n e m t s . T h e t r a n f r
d o e n t n l m t n o f e l e c t r . T h p r o c e s
u f i t e c a l l d u z e d l i m n e s c e , a n d t h e
p r i n c i p a l p h o p h u s e d i f l o r e s c e t i m p a r e



Ex t t p t f m g m f
bo t (C CO) ph ph with d ff t
rs l t 2 th li m 3

For this type The result in cerium carbonate (CaCO₃) shown in Fig. 7 illustrate the kind of system. If dissolved in magnesium (Mg) alcohol incorporated a non active trivalent CaCO₃ the system gives a very weak Mn²⁺ emission for all wavelengths of excitation. Let light through because the Mn²⁺ finally formed not in the spectral region shown by the very low absorption. The growth of slow decay film seen. In the wide range of Mn²⁺ does absorb much light. Let light Bright phosphor may be prepared by incorporating diarsenic lead (Pb) monovalent thallium (Tl) trivalent cerium (Ce) along with Mn²⁺ in CaCO₃. In a hole the Mn²⁺ is the same, but the wavelength which excite these phosphors is the short at (all the mixture) is changed. All these absorptions occur for negative well below the energy which the electron formed the solid. The film is that the light is absorbed by the Pb, Tl, Ce⁺⁺ sent which passes the energy to one by Mn²⁺ act as a direct the Mn²⁺.

It is important to know very well what data are the
ergometry by transferred from bioelectric to em-
t R E p m d s on calc m ilicat w th Pb⁺⁺ a d
t r m d d mpu tes h e h w th t i f
M is y e f the 8 nea t latt e
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Th t f f gy h b treat d theo t
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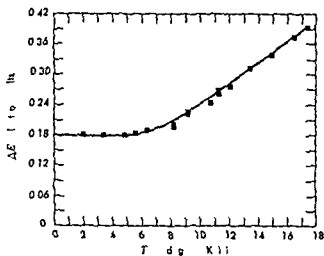


Fig. 4 Variation of the width of the F center absorption band in potassium chloride at its half maximum points ΔE as a function of the square root of the temperature

Quantum mechanical corrections. Although the configuration coordinate curve model of Fig. 4 is successful in describing many aspects of luminescence in solids it predicts that emission and absorption bands should become narrow lines as the temperature is reduced to absolute zero (0 K). This is not the case as is shown in Fig. 4 which gives the width of the absorption band of the F center in potassium chloride as a function of the square root of the temperature. (An F center is the simple type of color center, a color center being a lattice defect which can absorb light. For a detailed discussion of the optical absorption bands associated with F centers see COLOR CENTERS.) At high temperatures the previously quoted results are valid but at low temperatures the width of the band is constant.

This phenomenon may be explained by treating the configuration coordinate curves quantum mechanically. The curves have the energy versus displacement characteristics of the simple harmonic oscillator. For this case the quantum mechanical analysis shows that there is a series of equally spaced energy levels separated by an energy of $h\nu$, where h is Planck's constant and ν is the frequency of vibration. The lowest of the energy levels occurs at a value of $\frac{1}{2}h\nu$ above the minimum of the classical curve and this energy is called the zero point energy. Its importance is that even at absolute zero the system is not at rest but varies over a range of configuration coordinates characteristic of this lowest vibrational level. Analysis shows that under these conditions the widths of the band ΔE vary as

$$\Delta E = A \{ \coth (h/2kT) \}^{1/2} \quad (2)$$

where A is a constant. A curve of this form is drawn through the experimentally obtained points of Fig. 4 and shows satisfactory agreement.

One other result of the introduction of quantum mechanics is that this simple model predicts that both absorption and emission bands should be

Gaussian in shape at all temperatures that is, they should be of the form

$$I = I_0 \exp \{ -1(F - E_0)^2 \} \quad (3)$$

where I is the emission intensity or absorption strength for light of energy E and I_0 and E_0 refer to corresponding quantities at the maximum of the curve. Figure 5 shows the emission spectrum of thallium activated potassium chloride plotted in such a way that the expression of Eq. (3) would give two straight lines making equal angles with the horizontal. Although there is some disagreement in the wings of the emission spectrum and although the lines are not quite at the same angle, there still is fairly good agreement with the predictions of Eq. (3).

Materials with high dielectric constants. The use of configuration coordinate curve is justifiable only when the electron taking part in an optical transition is tightly bound to a luminescent center and interacts primarily with its nearest neighbors. This appears to be generally the case in materials with low dielectric constants such as the alkali halides. For high dielectric constant materials the situation is very different. It has been estimated that for boron in silicon the electron is spread over about 500 atoms so that its interaction with the nearest neighbors is small. In the case of the center interacts with the lattice during an optical transition through the creation of many vibrational phonons (sound quanta) at relatively large distances from the center (see PRUDOM). A case of this sort is illustrated in Fig. 6 which shows edge emission in cadmium sulfide near the absorption edge of the material. The major peaks correspond to an optical transition with simultaneous emission of 0, 1, 2, and 3 phonons respectively starting with the highest peak. The peaks are equidistant in energy and the spacing is just that to be expected for the creation of phonons.

Although both short and long range interactions of a center with its environment occur in all cases the short range interaction dominates for tightly

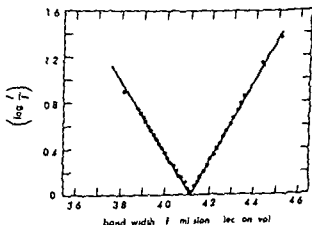


Fig. 5 Emission of thallium-activated potassium chloride at 4 K. In a plot of $\log I$ vs λ the curve would consist of two straight lines making equal angles with the abscissa.

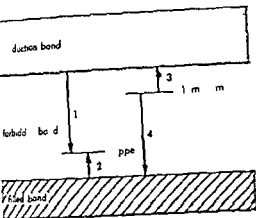


Fig. 9 Energy band model of a semiconductor with copper as a contact material

important to note that in this process both elements and the metal are used to form a junction. The metal used is silver (Ag) and the semiconductor is zinc selenide (ZnSe). The metal is deposited on the semiconductor by a process called sputtering. The metal is then annealed in a vacuum furnace at 400°C for 24 hours. The resulting device is shown in Fig. 9. The device is a p-n junction with a thickness of 1 mm. The device is used as a light source in a photometer.

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Luminosity factor

The ratio of luminous flux to radiant flux is called the luminosity factor. It is denoted by the symbol η . The luminosity factor is a dimensionless quantity. It is used to compare the efficiency of different light sources. The luminosity factor is defined as the ratio of the luminous flux to the radiant flux. The luminosity factor is a measure of the efficiency of a light source. The luminosity factor is a dimensionless quantity. It is used to compare the efficiency of different light sources.

The International Commission on Illumination (CIE) has defined the luminosity factor as a standard for comparing different light sources. The luminosity factor is a dimensionless quantity. It is used to compare the efficiency of different light sources. The luminosity factor is defined as the ratio of the luminous flux to the radiant flux. The luminosity factor is a measure of the efficiency of a light source. The luminosity factor is a dimensionless quantity. It is used to compare the efficiency of different light sources.

$$\eta = F / I$$

where F is the luminous flux and I is the radiant flux. The luminosity factor is a dimensionless quantity. It is used to compare the efficiency of different light sources.

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Luminous efficiency

The ratio of the luminous flux to the radiant flux is called the luminous efficiency. It is denoted by the symbol η . The luminous efficiency is a dimensionless quantity. It is used to compare the efficiency of different light sources. The luminous efficiency is defined as the ratio of the luminous flux to the radiant flux. The luminous efficiency is a measure of the efficiency of a light source. The luminous efficiency is a dimensionless quantity. It is used to compare the efficiency of different light sources.

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Luminous energy

The radiant energy in the visible region of the spectrum is called the luminous energy. It is denoted by the symbol Q_v . The luminous energy is a dimensionless quantity. It is used to compare the efficiency of different light sources. The luminous energy is defined as the ratio of the luminous flux to the radiant flux. The luminous energy is a measure of the efficiency of a light source. The luminous energy is a dimensionless quantity. It is used to compare the efficiency of different light sources.

Luminous flux

The total rate of flow of light is called the luminous flux. It is denoted by the symbol Φ_v . The luminous flux is a dimensionless quantity. It is used to compare the efficiency of different light sources. The luminous flux is defined as the ratio of the luminous flux to the radiant flux. The luminous flux is a measure of the efficiency of a light source. The luminous flux is a dimensionless quantity. It is used to compare the efficiency of different light sources.

ability of energy transfer I (defined as the reciprocal of the time required for a transition to occur) varies as

$$P \propto \frac{1}{R^n} \int f F_A dE \quad (4)$$

Here R is the distance between sensitizer and activator, n is the index of refraction of the host material which may be liquid or solid, f is a function describing the emission band of the sensitizer as a function of energy and is normalized so that the area under the curve is unity, and F_A is a function describing the absorption band of the activator also normalized to unity. The integral of Eq. (4) measures the overlap of these bands and determines the resonance transfer. In typical cases the sensitizer will transfer energy to an activator if the activator occupies any one of the 1000–10 000 nearest available sites around the sensitizer. One type of forbidden transition is a quadrupole transition in this case the number of sites for transfer would be about 100. If the transition in the activator is even more strongly forbidden quantum mechanical exchange effects predominate and the number of available sites for transfer should be reduced to 10 or less. In both of the cases just mentioned the integral measuring the overlap enters in the same way as it does in Eq. (4). From this theoretical treatment it appears that phosphors with Mn^{++} as the activator probably receive their energy by exchange interactions.

Concentration quenching Another phenomenon related to the resonant transfer of energy is that of concentration quenching. If phosphors are prepared with increasing concentration of activator the brightness will first increase but eventually will be quenched at high concentrations. It is believed that at high concentrations the absorbed energy is able to move from one activator to a nearby one by resonant transfer and thus migrate

through the solid or liquid. If there are poisons or quenching sites distributed in the material the migrating energy may reach one and be dissipated without luminescence. Impurity atoms, vacancies, jogs at dislocations, normal lattice ions near dislocations, and even a small fraction of the activator ions themselves when associated in pairs or higher aggregates can act as poisons. As the concentration is increased the speed of migration is increased and the quenching process becomes increasingly important.

LUMINESCENCE INVOLVING ELECTRON MOTION

In an important group of luminescent materials the transfer of energy to the luminescent center is brought about by the motion of electrons. Many oxide, sulfide, selenides, and tellurides are of this type and of these zinc sulfide has been most widely studied. It is frequently used as the luminescent material in cathode ray tubes and electroluminescent lamps.

Electronic processes in insulating materials are described by a band model such as that illustrated in Fig. 8. The electron energy increases vertically and the horizontal dimension shows position in a crystal. In the shaded area called the filled band or the valence band all the energy levels are filled with electrons. No electron can be accelerated or moved to higher energies within this band since the higher levels are already filled. Thus the material is an insulator. Above the valence band is an energy region called the forbidden band which has no energy levels in it for pure materials. However, imperfections may introduce a local energy level in this region as illustrated by the short line above 3 in Fig. 8. Above the forbidden band is an energy region called the conduction band. Here there are energy levels but in an insulator no electrons. If an electron in the filled band absorbs light of sufficiently high energy it may jump up into the conduction band as shown in 1 of Fig. 8. The empty position left behind in the filled band called a hole has properties which allow it to be described as an electron except that it has a positive charge. Both the electron in the conduction band and the hole in the filled band are free to move and gain energy. As a result current can flow when a voltage is applied externally. The electron and hole can also diffuse far from their origin and can thus transport energy to a distant luminescent center. See HOLES IN SOLIDS.

A simple luminescent transition is illustrated in Fig. 8. Assume that the impurity level (black dot in the forbidden band) is due to a luminescent center and that there is an electron in the level at the beginning of the process. Transition (1) shows the creation of a free electron and hole due to the absorption of light. The hole migrates to the center (2) and the electron in the impurity level falls into the hole (3) thus destroying it. The free electron now migrates toward the center (4) and falls into it (5) giving off luminescence. The cycle is complete and the center once again has an electron. It

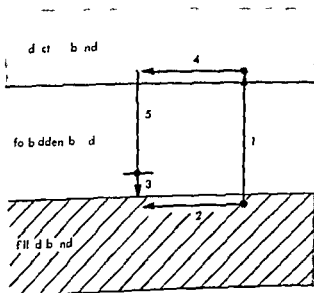


Fig. 8. Energy band model for luminescence processes in zinc sulfide.

Luminous intensity

The solid angular luminous flux density in a given direction from a light source. It may be considered as the luminous flux on a small surface normal to the given direction divided by the solid angle (in steradians) which the surface subtends at the source of light. Since the apex of a solid angle is a point, this concept applies exactly only to a point source. The size of the source however is often extremely small when compared with the distance from which it is observed so in practice the luminous flux coming from such a source may be taken as coming from a point. For accuracy the ratio of the diameter of the light source to the measuring distance should be about 1/10 although in practice ratios as large as 1/5 have been used without exceeding the permissible error.

Mathematically luminous intensity I is

$$I = dF/d\omega$$

where ω is the solid angle through which the flux from the point source is radiated and F is the luminous flux. See LUMEN PHOTOMETRY [R.C.F.]

Luminous paint

A type of paint that glows in the dark. Luminous paints may be either of the self-luminous type (energized by a radioactive salt) or of the type that requires excitation from an outside energy source such as light. Both types are made by incorporating luminescent material into the paint formulation.

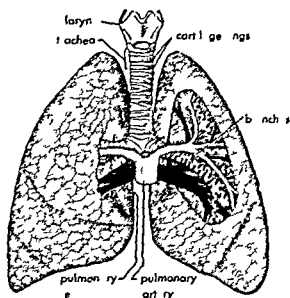
The self-luminous paints glow continuously for several years and are used chiefly for painting the dials of watches or compasses. Zinc sulfide type phosphors are generally used in their preparation, along with traces of some radioactive salt such as radium bromide or mesothorium bromide. Excitation of the phosphor is principally by bombardment of alpha particles (nuclei of helium atoms) from the radioactive salt or from one of its decay products.

The paints that require an outside source for excitation may be classed as either short afterglow or long afterglow paints. The luminescent materials in the short afterglow or fluorescent, paints are generally organic polynuclear hydrocarbons like anthracene or chrysene, or various luminescent dyes such as rhodamine. Long afterglow or phosphorescent, paints generally employ either alkaline earth sulfide type phosphors or zinc sulfide type phosphors. The former type give distinguishable luminescence for periods up to 10 hours while the useful afterglow of the latter type is generally limited to 1 hour or less. These paints are used, for example, under blackout conditions during war time. For painted arrows or signs on a wall it is necessary to have an extremely bright afterglow for a relatively short period of time.

[C.C.K. J.H.S.]

Lung

In man the paired respiratory organs in the chest, separated by the heart and mediastinum. The right lung has three lobes the left lung, two. A bronchus, an artery and a vein enter each lung at the hilum. Each branches again and again to form lung lobules and smaller divisions. The terminal airways or bronchioles expand into small clusters of grape-like air cells or alveoli. The alveolar walls consist of a single layer of epithelium and collectively present a huge surface. A small network of blood capillaries in the wall of the alveoli afford exchange surfaces for the diffusion of gases.



The human lung (From *T. I. Storer and R. L. Usinger, General Zoology* 3d ed. McGraw-Hill 1957)

A serous membrane the pleura covers each lung and is reflected over the adjacent walls as the pleura.

Lungs are simple sacs in those fish that have them and in reptiles and many amphibians only birds and mammals have developed the complex warm-blooded respiratory system similar to that of man. See LUNG DISORDERS [E.C.S.]

Lung disorders

Diseases of the lung include inflammatory processes due to infectious processes of scarring and destruction which reduce the respiratory surface of the lung, disturbances of pulmonary circulation and tumors. The lung can also be affected secondarily by extension of bronchial diseases (see BRONCHIAL DISORDERS). For a general discussion of the effect of pulmonary diseases on the whole organism see RESPIRATORY SYSTEM DISORDERS.

INFLAMMATORY DISEASES

These diseases can be acute or run a chronic course; they are usually accompanied by fever.

Pneumonia. This is an acute inflammatory disease of the peripheral air spaces of the lung caused

infection from a *respiratory pathogen microorganism*. The type of pneumonia is largely determined by the infecting agent, which reaches the pulmonary cells through the airways. Pneumonia is a respiratory disease, many forms having a high mortality rate.

Lobar pneumonia This is the commonest form to which lobar pneumonia is applied without specification. It is caused by the gram-positive pneumococcus, *Diplococcus pneumoniae*. Infection by pneumococcus uses pneumonia only if the resistance of the patient against infection is markedly reduced by such diseases as chill, pneumonia, sepsis, injury, or many other diseases. Particularly those associated with influenza are of the lobar type. The infectious starts in one lobe and spreads gradually throughout an entire lobe of the lung. The characteristic feature of this pneumonia is consolidation of the alveolar capillaries, which fill with blood and an exudate of plasma to the alveoli. In this process, addition of leukocytes to white blood cells follows. This exudate is when fibrin forms in the vessels. The normally puffy lung tissue becomes firm like leather. The pleura becomes inflamed and some exudate with fibrin is added to the pleural cavity. The leukocytes are blebbed into the alveoli, allowing death of the pneumococcus if they have been previously made less aggressive by the action of antibodies, formed in the body or by the pyogenic infection. In milder or atypical cases (pneumocystis), retention of the pleural exudate is followed by its absorption and removal of fibrin by the lymphatic and blood vessels.

Usually, death occurs during the period of the illness, usually completed by the third or fourth day. In some cases, the exudate is replaced by organization, and the lung becomes firm.

Focal pneumonia Bacterial pneumonia is a focal pneumonia, caused by streptococci, staphylococci, and pneumococci. *Alveolar pneumonia* is a type of pneumonia which is localized but not lobular. It has a focal distribution. Dis-

seminating from the smaller bronchi bronchopneumonia tends to destroy tissue and to form abscesses. Healing results in scarring and formation of encapsulated cavity. The abscesses often have a high fatality. The mortality rate for Friedlander pneumonia was 80% and despite antibiotic is still alive.

Interstitial pneumonia This disease is characterized by congestion of the alveolar capillaries and a cumulative infiltration of leukocytes in the loose connective tissue of the lung. It is usually found in infection caused by virus or viral origin, measles, or similar pathogen.

Pleurisy Pleurisy is inflammation of the pleural cavity accompanied by fluid accumulation in the pleural cavity. It occurs in many diseases of the lung, particularly in tuberculosis. The blood vessels of the pleura become congested and fluid is leaking from them and white blood cells escape from the capillaries and accumulate in the connective tissue. From there it passes through the lining

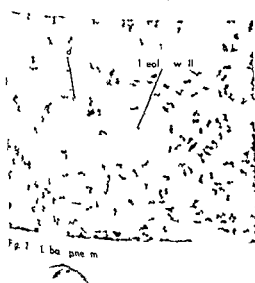
cells of the pleura into the pleural space where it accumulates. The space between the diaphragm and the chest wall becomes filled with fluid in the pleural surface. The pleural effusion can be removed with a therapeutic measure for diagnosis. The process by which the fluid is removed is the pleural cavity. The pleural cavity is the fluid is absorbed. The fibrin is removed from the lung and the chest wall sticks together, restricting the expansion of the lung.

The fluid is absorbed. The fibrin is removed from the lung and the chest wall sticks together, restricting the expansion of the lung. The fluid is absorbed. The fibrin is removed from the lung and the chest wall sticks together, restricting the expansion of the lung. The fluid is absorbed. The fibrin is removed from the lung and the chest wall sticks together, restricting the expansion of the lung.

Pulmonary tuberculosis This is a inflammatory disease of the lung due to infection with the tubercle bacillus. It is a chronic disease, characterized by a slow progression of the disease. The primary site of infection is the lung, where a localized inflammatory nodule is formed. This is the primary site of infection. The primary site of infection is the lung, where a localized inflammatory nodule is formed.

The primary site of infection is the lung, where a localized inflammatory nodule is formed. This is the primary site of infection. The primary site of infection is the lung, where a localized inflammatory nodule is formed. This is the primary site of infection. The primary site of infection is the lung, where a localized inflammatory nodule is formed. This is the primary site of infection. The primary site of infection is the lung, where a localized inflammatory nodule is formed.

Scarring and destruction The normal lung is a soft, spongy organ. In the process of infection, the lung becomes firmer and more solid. The normal lung is a soft, spongy organ. In the process of infection, the lung becomes firmer and more solid. The normal lung is a soft, spongy organ. In the process of infection, the lung becomes firmer and more solid.



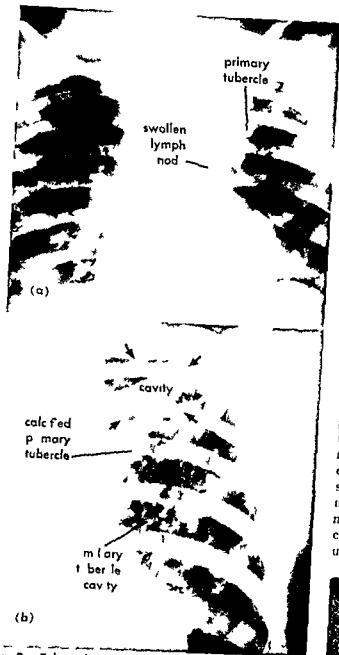


Fig 2 Tuberculosis (a) Primary (b) Primary

nary structures by formation of strands and foci of connective tissue fibrosis

Emphysema This condition designates two entirely different diseases. In interstitial emphysema air bubbles are found in tissue chiefly in loose connective tissue where the air can spread easily. It is frequently located in the interstices of the lung and mediastinum having diffused from ruptured alveoli of the lung. Pulmonary emphysema is a state of abnormal distension of the peripheral air spaces of the lung. The walls of distended alveoli are thinned finally leaving large spaces consisting of coalescent adjacent groups of alveoli which have lost their septa (Fig 3). These blebs can reach several centimeters in diameter and are then called bullae resulting in bullous emphysema. This is due to air trapping in peripheral parts of the airways when air enters the air spaces on inspiration but is prevented from being expelled during expiration by a valve-like mechanism in the small air bronchi. In diffuse pulmonary

emphysema a large number of slightly distended air spaces is encountered throughout the lung. It can occur when a part of the lung has either undergone atelectasis or has been removed surgically. The minor form is quite common in older individuals. Emphysema patients suffer from severe shortness of breath since many alveolar capillaries have been destroyed with the alveolar walls. The respiratory surface of the lung is significantly reduced and the blood is incompletely oxygenated resulting in cyanosis.

Atelectasis In the adult lung this condition is the collapse of the air spaces through obstruction of a bronchus by tumors, foreign bodies, or other conditions. The retained air is absorbed by the blood. Compression of the lung from outside by tumors also leads to atelectasis (Fig 4).

In congenital atelectasis expansion of the lung is partly or completely prevented at birth for various reasons and the air spaces cannot become filled with air. Complete congenital atelectasis is fatal and accounts for the death of many newborn children.

Pneumoconiosis This is a general term for a group of diseases of the lung induced by various kinds of dust which results in focal scarring. They mostly represent occupational diseases since the exposure to the particular dust has to be extensive and of long duration. The most important agent is silica which is inhaled by miners, stone masons, metal grinders, sand blasters, and others and which causes silicosis. Most of the inhaled dust is coughed up, however, the particles which reach the alveoli



Fig 3 Pulmonary emphysema

with or without gills which are also present. The lungfishes are slender elongated fishes. The premaxillae and maxillae are lacking and the teeth are specialized into crushing structures called torial plates.

Neoceratodus fosteri, the Australian lungfish, is the heaviest bodied of the three. It has large cycloid scales, sturdy short paired fins and a relatively deep body. It now occurs only in the Burnett and Mary Rivers of Queensland. This fish uses its lung as an aid to breathing in stagnant water. It does not estivate.

Lepidosiren, a monospecific genus of South America, and *Protopterus* of Central Africa are similar. They have slender bodies, small scales and long very slender paired fins. They live in seasonal swamps and move about over the bottom hunting mollusks during the wet season, breathing primarily if not entirely by means of their gills. During the dry season they form a mucus lined cocoon in the mud in which they estivate. During this period respiration appears to be entirely through the lungs. They escape from the cocoon and resume activity with the return of the wet season. There are three species of *Protopterus*. See DIBB.

[D B]

Lupine

A cool season legume bearing digitate leaves with five or more straplike leaflets and having terminal racemes of pea shaped blossoms.

Three species, the blue, yellow and white, named for the color of their blossoms, are used in field planting. Lupines need much less potash and lime for growth than the clovers. They do not tolerate extremely low or high temperatures and are attacked by numerous diseases and by several insects.

The older varieties of lupine contained a bitter toxic alkaloid and were used only as cover crops. However, since 1912 European plant breeders have selected low alkaloid varieties of blue and yellow lupines which can also be used for forage.

The production of blue lupine as a cover crop increased greatly in the southeastern United States beginning in 1939. Since 1951, however, lupine culture has declined, partly as a result of an increase of disease and insect injury. See BREEDING (PLANT), COVER CROPS, LEGUME FORAGES [P].

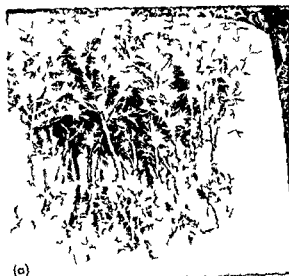
Lupus erythematosus

One of the collagen diseases in which connective tissues show a similar form of biochemical and structural alteration. Each of the collagen diseases is a distinct clinical and pathologic entity and such a grouping exists more as a matter of convenience than because of a common etiologic factor. See CONNECTIVE TISSUE.

Collagen diseases display three local forms of degeneration/inflammation, namely fibrinoid, mucoid and hyaline degeneration. Each has its own histologic appearance and may occasionally be seen in other diseases. The causes are poorly understood but hypersensitivity and nucleoprotein derangement appear to be involved. See HYPERSENSITIVITY, NUCLEOPROTEIN.

Lupus erythematosus is an acute or subacute febrile disease that may produce widespread damage to the connective tissue components of many organs and tissues. It occurs predominantly in young women, but males appear to be increasingly affected, perhaps because of development of better diagnostic procedures. The blood vessels, heart, kidneys, skin and serous membranes are characteristically involved. One of the most striking findings in more than half the cases is the appearance of a reddish, butterfly shaped rash over the cheeks and nose (see illustration). A blood serum factor is present in lupus which produces almost pathognomonic changes in the blood neutrophils.

There is a significant incidence of involvement of the heart (myocarditis) and also of the lining and valves of the heart (endocarditis). Kidney lesions (nephritis) and lesions of the serous membranes of the heart (pericarditis), lungs (pleuritis) and ab-



(a)



(b)

Lupine (a) Plants (b) A field of lupine in flower



pus ryth m t (W A N D I d Am
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1942)

dominant peritonitis (peritonitis) are commonly encountered. Small arteries become the site for inflammatory reactions, especially in the kidney.

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Welsbach wh named the element cassiopeium but lutetium is the accepted form at pre nt The salts are colorless and give a tri alent ion in solu tion For the propert es of the metal see RARE EARTH ELEMENTS [F H SP]

Lux

LUX
The unit of illumination when the square meter is taken as the unit of area. It is defined as the illumination on a surface one square meter in area in which there is a luminous flux of 1 lumen uniformly distributed over the illumination on a surface all points of which are at a distance of 1 meter from a uniform point source of 1 candle. See ILLUMINATION LUMEN [R.C.P.]

Lychee

Lycne
The plant, *Litchi chinensis* also called litchi is a member of the so pberry family (Sapindacae) and native of southern China where it has been cultivated for more than 1000 years. It is now being grown successfully in India, United States of South Africa, Hawaii, Burma, Madagascar, West India, Brazil, Indonesia, Japan, Australia and the southern United States. The fruit is a succulent berry. The thin leathery tough hull or pericarp of the fruit is bright red in color in most varieties. Beneath the hull is a completely unadorned seed. The seed is a silvery pulp. The fruit may be eaten fresh, candied or dried. In China the fruit is used to make a great delicacy. See SAPINDACEAE [PDS]

Lychniscosa

Anther of the umbel. The antherophore in the
 1. The anther. The perianth megascleres
 of the perianth are thickened to form a rigid frame-
 work. The perianth megascleres are all in
 pairs. The hexactin in which the central part
 of the perianth is surrounded by a system of 12
 trilete elements. The anther is *Aulocystis* and
D. tylosis. See *HEXACTINELLIDA* *HEXASTERO-
 PHORA* [W.D.H.]

Lycopodiales

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Fig 1 Restoration of Carboniferous forest trees and central ferns, club mosses and equisetum (From E. N.

Transeau, H. C. Sampson and L. H. Tiffany, Textbook of Botany, revised Harper, 1953)

cone or strobile or the sporangia may be borne singly on the upper surface of prophylls scattered along the stem. The cones are often elevated on upright branches so that they occur above the leafy shoots. Because the cones resemble a club, these plants have been given the erroneous common name club moss. The similar spores (homopolars) are grouped in tetrads indicating that reduction division occurs in their formation from the spore mother cells.

Classification. Of the two genera included in this order, *Phylloglossum* is confined to portions of Australia, Tasmania, and New Zealand (Fig. 2). This genus has only one species of simple structure which may be the living descendant of more highly developed ancestors. The other genus, *Lycopodium*, has about 180 species and is world wide in distribution. The greatest concentration of spe-

cies is in the tropics and subtropics, but the plants also grow in the arctic region. Many of the species are perennial and inhabit the moist woodland or forest floor, whereas others are epiphytic and grow upon forest trees.

Structure. In most respects the anatomy of *Lycopodium*, especially that of the roots and leaves, is like that of other vascular (higher) plants. See LEAF (BOTANY), ROOT (BOTANY), STEM (BOTANY). The primitive arrangement of the vascular tissues in the stem is called a protostele (a solid cylinder devoid of pith), which may be modified by the relative position and amounts of xylem and phloem in the mature stem (see PHLOEM, XYLEM). All of the vascular tissue is primary, since it is produced by a cluster of apical meristematic cells with no indication of cambial or secondary activity (see MERISTEMATICAL). Development and maturation of the xylem is exarch or toward the center. A strand of conducting tissue extends from the stele into each leaf and becomes its vein, but no leaf gap is produced where the strand emerges from the stele. Similarly, each branch and root is connected with the primary stele, but in the case gaps are left in the central cylinder as is true in all vascular plant.

Alternation of generations. The conspicuous plant with its root, stem, leaves, and sporangia is the sporophyte or spore-producing generation (Fig. 3). The sporophyte begins with the zygote (fertilized egg) and ends with the formation of spore. The gametophyte (gamete-producing generation) begins with the spore and ends with the union of the egg and sperm in the formation of the zygote. In *Lycopodium*, sporangia are large and somewhat kidney-shaped and are borne singly in

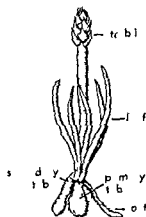


Fig 2 Fertile plant of *Phylloglossum dimorphum*, twice natural size (From A. W. H. Plant Morphology, McGraw-Hill, 1953)

Selaginella In *Lycopodium* the spores produced by the sporophyte are all alike (homospores) whereas in *Selaginella* the spores are unlike (heterospores) See ISOETALES LEPIDODENDRALES LYCOPODIALES PLEROMEIALES SELAGINELLALES TRACHIOPHYTA [P A V]

Bibliography See LYCOPSIDA

Lycopsidea

A subphylum of the plant phylum Tracheophyta having a long fossil history but today restricted to four living genera. The living members commonly called club mosses (a misnomer) are of significance in that the study of their structures and life cycles provides clues to the understanding of the many extinct species. Some of these plants now known only as fossils were the dominant species of the extensive swampy forests of the

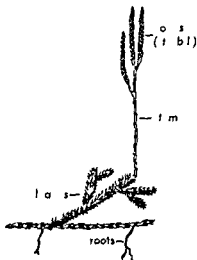


Fig 1 *Lycopodium* or club moss showing prostrate stem with many small leaves upright stem bearing cones or strobili and roots arising from rhizome (From H J Fuller The Plant World revised Holt 1951)

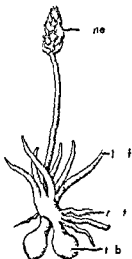


Fig 2 *Phylloglossum* with fleshy base at base giving rise to roots quill-like leaves and a stalk with a terminal cone (From H J Fuller and O Tippo C. Ilego Botany revised Holt 1954)



Fig 3 *Selaginella kausana* portion of a sporophyte (From G M Smith Cryptogamic Botany vol 2 2d ed McGraw-Hill 1955)

Carboniferous and grew to 30 meters in height (see GEOLOGY LEPIDODENDRALES PALEOBOTANY PLEROMEIALES)

Classification The living members of this subphylum are confined to the four genera *Lycopodium* *Phylloglossum* *Selaginella* and *Isoetes*. They are herbaceous plants growing close to the ground or as small epiphytes. All are widely distributed except *Phylloglossum* which is confined to portions of Australia New Zealand and Tasmania. The greatest number of species are to be found in the tropical zone although some species of *Lycopodium* may be found in the arctic regions. Nearly all of the genera grow in moist shady habitats.

Structure The living Lycopsidea are characterized by a dominant independent (self-sustaining) sporophyte which is differentiated into a root stem and leaves. The stems and roots branch dichotomously (fork). The leaves are small simple and spirally arranged. See LEAF (BOTANY). Typically they have but one vascular bundle which produces no leaf gap as it departs from the stele of the stem. See STELE STEM (BOTANY). **VASCULAR BUNDLES** The vascular tissue of the stem is usually a protostele consisting of a solid central core of xylem surrounded by a cylinder of phloem although some lycopods have the center of the stele composed of parenchyma (pith) rather than tracheids or organization termed a siphonostele (see PARENCHYMA PHLOEM XYLEM). The phloem is surrounded by a pericycle and a well defined cortex and epidermis (see CORTEX PLANT EPIDERMIS PLANT PERICYCLE). The tracheid found in the vascular tissue are largely calariform. Several species have a cambium which forms secondary



Fig. 4. Isotria medeolae (F. M. A. W. Pl. Phila. M. G. W. H. 1953)

scular tissue (see MERISTEM LATERAL) The sporangia (porting structures) sessile on the upper face of fertile leaves called sporophylls. The sporophyll may be calicized at the tip of a branch and form a structure called cone or strobilus. The strobilus is a terminal inflorescence of gametophytes producing gametes to be approached by the gametophyte (dead gametophyte). The sporophyte is in the antheridium releasing the gametes. See LORATALES LYCOPODIALES LYCOPODIACEAE SELAGINELLAE TRACHEOPHYTES [P. 115] Bibliography H. C. Bold, *Mythology of Plants* 1971 H. J. Fuller and O. T. P. College Botany revised 1944 A. W. Haupt, *Plant Morphology* 1903 G. M. Smith, *Cryptogamic Botany* v. 1, 2, 4 ed., 1905

Lymph node

Aggregation of lymphoid tissue found along the course of lymphatic vessels. They vary in length from 1 mm to 2 cm or more, and are shaped from spherical to flattened in cross-section. A fibrous capsule surrounds each gland and the lymphatic vessels enter and exit through the lymphatic capsule. The lymphoid tissue is composed of germinal centers of lymphocytes together with the cells, particularly those of the reticuloendothelial system. Lymph glands are found in the spleen and deep tissues, including the axilla, groin, mediastinum, and pelvis, and the intestinal wall (Peyer's patches). At least 100 lymph nodes are present to supply lymph to the circulation and to the lymphatic system.

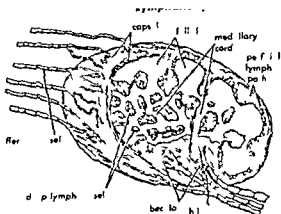


Diagram of lymph node (After C. Toldt, *Atlas of Human Anatomy*, 1914) (F. M. A. W. Pl. Phila. M. G. W. H. 1953)

node by the lymphatic vessels. In addition, it is thought that lymph glands may be the site of antibody formation. See ANTIBODY LYMPHATIC SYSTEM [ECST]

Lymphatic system

A system of vessels in the vertebrate body beginning in a network of exceedingly thin-walled capillaries almost all the organs and tissues except the brain and bones. This network is drained by larger channels, mostly converging along the veins and eventually joining to form a large central thoracic duct, which runs beside the spinal column to enter the left subclavian vein at the base of the neck. The lymph fluid is a clear, colorless, watery fluid, formed by filtration from the blood capillaries. While in the lymphatic capillaries it is clear and watery. At intervals, however, the larger lymphatic vessels the lymph passes through pongelike lymph nodes where it receives great numbers of cells, the lymphocytes, and becomes turbid. The lymphatic vessel other than capillaries contains numerous small spaces preventing back flow of the lymph. The function of the lymphatic system are to remove particular materials such as molecular proteins and bacteria from the tissue to transport it from the intestines to the blood and to supply the blood with lymphocytes.

The system contains sections in the embryology of the lymphatic system and spleen and the comparative histology and physiology of the lymphatic system.

EMBRYOLOGY

The mode of development of the vascular system in the embryo is related to the arterial and venous systems. The arterial system has been studied and described by 1910. Embryos of representative species from all classes of vertebrates have been studied and described by 1910. Embryos of representative species from all classes of vertebrates have been studied and described by 1910. Embryos of representative species from all classes of vertebrates have been studied and described by 1910.

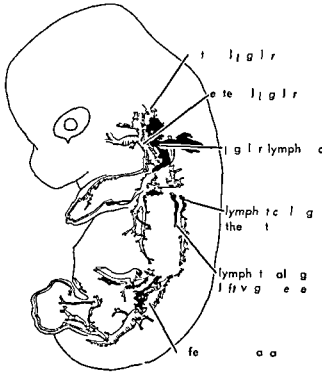


Fig 1 Lymphatic sacs and veins in a 14.5 mm rabbit embryo (R O Geep & H Stlogy B l k s ton—M Graw Hill 1954)

A sharp distinction must be made between the processes of the earliest formation of discrete lymph vessels and those leading merely to an extension of once established channel. The former entail actual genesis of endothelium (vasculogenesis), the latter merely representative growth by budding and branching of newly established vessels occurs throughout the vascular system whether hemal (arterial and venous) or lymphatic. The controversial aspects mainly concern the earliest beginnings of lymph vessels.

Theories There are two conflicting concepts. One is that all lymph channels develop by centrifugal outgrowth from embryonic veins specifically from their endothelial lining. In the neck and loin regions as well as in the posterior abdominal wall and at the root of the intestinal mesentery such outgrowths form sac-like expansions (Fig 1). These are respectively the jugular and iliac (lumbar) lymph sacs, the future cisterna chyli (pool of chyle near the base of the abdominal aorta) and the mesenteric lymph sac. All the body pervading lymphatics are said to be formed by sprouting from the sacs and thus to be derived directly from the lining epithelium of blood vessels. The original points of budding from certain veins (cardinals for instance) either could be retained or lost and secondary evacuation taps for the lymph could be established.

The opposing view holds that the lymphatics arise directly from the mesenchymal spaces either adjacent to decadent venules or unassociated with veins. During early embryonic development some rich and temporary venous plexuses become reorganized. Certain venules atrophy and disappear particularly in regions of the developing lymph

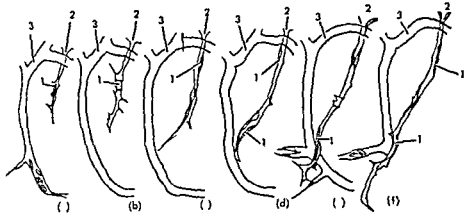
sacs. The drainage function is taken over by a lymphatic network which temporarily may carry blood cells received either from degenerative venules or from blood islands in the surrounding mesenchyme. The ultimate connection with major stem veins is always secondary. The system arises in a discontinuous manner and independently of the endothelium of veins. The overall direction of its development is centripetal. The isolated and discrete plexuses converge and fuse to form continuous lymphatic trunks and network. The main connection of the jugular lymph sacs with the venous system develops early, before the more distal lymphatic primordia have interconnected or joined the sacs. This link between two drainage systems, lymphatic and venous, occurs near the base of the neck (Fig 1) at the jugulosubclavian junction.

Investigative methods There are two general methods for the investigation of lymphatic genesis, each has serious limitations. They consist either of the study of serial sections of well preserved embryos or of injections of the developing lymphatics (Fig 2). Crucial events in that development take place very early in human embryo, for instance when they measure only 10 mm. Obviously it is impossible to detect discontinuous segments of developing lymphatics by the injection method. Serial sections on the other hand can be obtained of uninjected as well as of injected embryos. This method in turn presents difficulties in regard to fixation effect, shrinkage of the delicate embryonic tissues and interpretive errors in reconstruction. Further progress may depend on newly devised methods.

The latest evidence strongly supports the centripetal view of the origin of the lymphatic system. According to this view the very first beginnings are identical with those of the arterial and venous components of the vascular system. All a vasculogenesis appears to occur through the same fundamental transformation of mesenchymal cells into endothelial cells. The lymphatic precursor stage succeeding the development of veins are as a rule less distinct and therefore difficult to recognize. This has caused differing interpretation.

Embryonic phase In human embryos of about 1 in (20–30 mm) a connected primitive lymph system is already established. The main lymph channel ascending through the thorax in front of the vertebral column (thoracic duct) has joined the jugular lymph sac. At its distal end it is continuous with the cisterna chyli into which converge the lymphatics from the intestinal tract and those of the lower trunk and limbs. The jugular lymph sacs also receive lymphatic drainage from the developing upper limbs through the primitive ulnar lymphatics. Other lymph trunks develop in the head and neck regions so that the jugular lymph sacs soon receive returning tissue fluids from all body regions. Lymph thereby is returned to the circulation of the blood via the vascular system.

In early stages the thoracic ducts are paired and symmetrically developed. Some animals retain dual



(1) ucl lymph (2) lymph

Fig. 2. S. S. (a-f) th. g. with of a h. (R. O. G. p. d. H. u. l. g. y. B. l. k. s. n. M. G. w. H. l. 1954)

of thoracic ducts. In many mammals the thoracic duct system becomes a permanent structure. In some mammals the thoracic duct system becomes a permanent structure. In some mammals the thoracic duct system becomes a permanent structure.

Fetal phase During fetal life the main lymphatic vessels are the pharyngeal lymphatic vessels. During fetal life the main lymphatic vessels are the pharyngeal lymphatic vessels. During fetal life the main lymphatic vessels are the pharyngeal lymphatic vessels.

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Fig. 3. V. l. lymph (1) C. H. y. G. l.

ning of a lymph node (Fig. 4). The lymphatic system is a permanent structure. The lymphatic system is a permanent structure. The lymphatic system is a permanent structure.

SPLEEN

The spleen is a large lymphatic organ. The spleen is a large lymphatic organ. The spleen is a large lymphatic organ. The spleen is a large lymphatic organ. The spleen is a large lymphatic organ.

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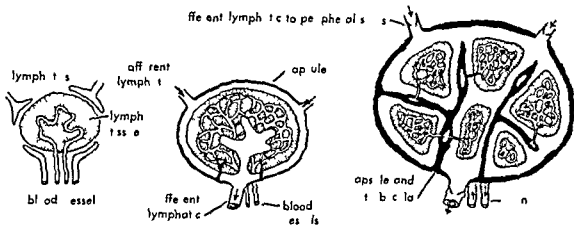


Fig 4 Development of a lymphatic gland (L B Arey and R L Rea Developmental Anatomy 6th ed Saunders 1954)

In the fourth and fifth fetal months the lymphoid cells appear and almost synchronously many precursor stages of future red blood cells appear. This blood forming function is called erythropoiesis. It is temporary in human embryos but fairly conspicuous in the fifth and sixth fetal months. During that time the meshes of the reticular background contain many immature and mature erythrocytes (red pulp). Later the production of lymphoid elements predominates. Gradually a white or lymphoid pulp develops. Lymphocytes are being produced mainly in areas surrounding the specially shaped sheath (arteries with thickened walls). Full development of the white pulp with lymph follicles and germinal centers is protracted until after birth. There are no lymphatic afferents to the spleen although the later developmental features of the spleen resemble those of lymph nodes. Some forms of white blood cells are produced in the spleen throughout life and used up red blood cells are being continuously destroyed in it. [A A Z]

COMPARATIVE ANATOMY

Invertebrates It is disputable how far down in the animal series lymphoid tissue is found. Some authors speak of lymphocytic cells in annelid worms, in mollusks and in other invertebrates.

In general the more primitive and less differentiated blood cells resemble more closely the lymphocytes of vertebrates. This is true also of the lower chordates in which so called lymphocytes of the tunicates are said to differentiate into any of the other cell types of the body. Lymph nodules are described in some species of tunicates in the body wall and in the gut wall.

In the nonchordates it is difficult or impossible to make a distinction between blood vessels and lymphatic vessels. Probably the two systems had a common type of origin.

In *Amphioxus* however among the lower chordates lymphatic vessels can be identified surrounding the blood vessels and are seen also around the central nervous system in the dorsal fin and in the metapleural folds.

The lymphatics of vertebrates are distributed in some of the same manner as are the veins (Fig 5). Thus they are divided into a deep and a superficial set. The deep set develops in relation to the cardinal veins and then makes connection with them and with the superficial set. See LYMPHIC VESSELS.

Fishes In fishes the lymphatic system varies in degree of development in different species. In some the veins seem to carry on the function of lymphatic drainage but in a number of species of ganoids, teleosts and elasmobranchs a well developed lymphatic system is seen. The lymphatic vessels surround the veins in the elasmobranchs in other fishes they are not so closely related to the blood vessels. In the elasmobranchs also there may be one or two large trunks which run parallel with the aorta and are comparable to the thoracic duct or ducts of man and other mammals. Pulsating organs called lymph hearts which assist in driving the lymph along the vessels occur in some fishes (Fig 6). The lymph vessels lack valves. Lymph nodes are absent although there are collections of lymphoid tissue chiefly close to mucosal surfaces. Nodules are found in these collections but they lack germinal centers.

The organ of Leydig of the selachian fishes consists of two large accumulations of lymphoid tissue which run longitudinally the whole length of the esophagus and even extend into the stomach. Although the cells of this organ are primarily lymphocytic they apparently serve as stem cells for all the types of white blood corpuscles in the fishes and hence the tissue perhaps should be spoken of as lymphomyeloid indicating its hematopoietic as well as lymphoid character. See GLAND.

In the sturgeon a mass of lymphoid tissue has been described which occurs near the heart and resembles a lymph node but its homologues are doubtful.

Amphibia In the Amphibia the lymphatic system often includes very large subcutaneous sinuses probably to protect against the danger of loss of moisture. Dilatations of the lymphatics or lymph sacs occur frequently. Lymph hearts are common.

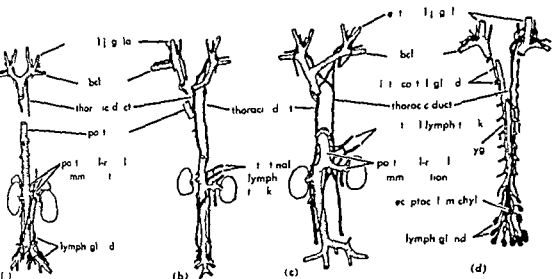


Fig. 5. Diagrams of the lymphatic system in (a) mammal, (b) bird, (c) reptile, (d) fish. Labels: lign, bcl, thoracic duct, posterior, liver, kidney, lymph gland, trachea, lymph node, ectoplasmic cilia, lymph gland.

Fig. 5. Diagrams of the lymphatic system in (a) mammal, (b) bird, (c) reptile, (d) fish. Labels: lign, bcl, thoracic duct, posterior, liver, kidney, lymph gland, trachea, lymph node, ectoplasmic cilia, lymph gland.

in various parts of the body and a thoracic duct is present. A cumulative mass of lymphoid tissue is often present adjacent to the lymph sacs but are not comparable in architecture to the lymph nodes of higher vertebrates. They may however represent an early stage in the development of the lymphatic system. Reptiles. Reptiles have well-developed lymphatic systems but lack the peculiar features of amphibians. In the ophidians the lymph node is a well-developed structure.

Birds. The lymphatic system of birds, lymph nodes are well developed in some species and have not been demonstrated in others. They are definitely present in ducks, both wild and domestic.

geese and in various other species. The locations of the cervical, thoracic and lumbar regions.

The architecture of lymph nodes of birds is simple though in mammalian lymph nodes they are by different with the walls of lymphatic vessels where in mammals they are in the surrounding tissue. The lymphatic vessels of birds contain light areas in the nodes the so-called germinal centers where mitosis occurs. These centers in birds however usually are more abundant than in the largest size occupy the central parts of the node and a sparsely unorganized mass of lymphoid tissue occupies the periphery. In mammals the lymphatic node with their germinal centers is in the peripheral edge. In both birds and mammals the germinal center is not only mitotic figures but also many lymphocytes in process of degeneration and large phagocytic cells which contain fragments of lymphocyte or whole lymphocyte within their cytoplasm.

Mammals. The lymph nodes of mammals are numerous and form a distributed network in different species. They appear to be somewhat surprising difference in number of lymph nodes in different kinds of mammals. For example, the dog has 160, the cow 300, man 465 and the horse 8000. In the dog and cow however the lymph node is relatively large in number and the horse they are relatively small. Their shape also varies with the function of the lymphatic nodes. The large nodes are arranged in a network of the aldehyde. In the blood stream the lymphatic nodes are met with to form huge nodules parallel to the blood vessels as much as the lymphatic nodes combined. There are similar arrangements.

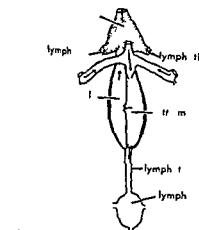


Fig. 6. Diagram of a lymph node. Labels: lymph, lymphatic, trachea, lymph, lymph.

ment for the mesenteric nodes in some other rodents and in some carnivore. The species include the mole the dolphin the eal and the narwhal whale.

The amount of connective tissue of the lymph node that is the degree of development of the capsule and trabeculae varies in different mammals. It is weakly developed in the pig dog sheep rabbit guinea pig and rat. In man and in the horse the trabeculae of the medullary part are more strongly developed than those of the cortex. Many mammals show a strong development of smooth muscle in the capsule and trabeculae as in the horse sheep cow and dog. The cow has an especially thick capsule and trabeculae.

In some lymph nodes the cortex with its nodules is very sharply set off from the medulla with its more diffuse lymphoid tissue. This is true of the cow. In other animals the nodes seem to vary in this respect in different parts of the body or even in a rather haphazard manner whereas in still others such as the pig there may seem to be almost a reversal of arrangement with the nodular tissue situated centrally and the diffuse tissue peripheral.

Other lymphoid organs. These include the tonsils thymus gland and spleen and in certain classes and groups of animals structures which are confined to such groups for instance the bursa of Fabricius in the birds a diverticulum from the lower end of the alimentary canal. See **SPLEEN** **THYMUS GLAND** **TONSIL**.

Tonsils. The tonsils seem to be represented in the frog and toad by two large fossae palatinae invaginations of epithelium surrounded by dense masses of lymphoid tissue. Smaller structures of simple construction also are present.

In the posterior part of the buccal cavity of *Proteus* and *Salamandra* there are areas in which the epithelium is thickly infiltrated by lymphocytes.

Among the reptiles *Lacerta agilis* shows definite tonsils in the pharynx with elongated lymph nodules occurring along epithelial invaginations and with an apparent lack of basement membrane and a complete intermingling of epithelial and lymphoid tissue near the surface. Tonsils are seen also in the crocodiles.

Birds not only have large aggregations of lymphoid tissue in the pharynx but often also a large esophageal tonsil. The first staining germinal centers are seen for the first time in birds.

A ring of lymphoid tissue known as Waldeyer's ring consisting of palatine pharyngeal and lingual tonsils is present in many mammals as in man but other mammals may lack one or more of its component parts. In the rat and mouse there are no palatine tonsils. In the hare and rabbit pharyngeal tonsils are lacking. The rabbit hare dog cat and sheep apparently lack lingual tonsils.

Tonsils of the horse are peculiar in that they contain structures apparently identical with the Hassall corpuscles of the thymus gland.

Spleen. The spleen is an organ of dual nature belonging to both the blood vascular and the lymphatic system. In the lower vertebrates it is actually within the wall of the alimentary canal. In cyclostomes it lies in the submucosa of stomach and intestine. In the lamprey it is within the spiral valve. Among the Dipnoi it is found within the stomach wall but in elasmobranchs and ganoids it is a separate structure attached to the mesentery. In fishes and amphibians it is active as an erythrocytopoietic and lymphocytopoietic organ. Its function of forming lymphocytes is important also in higher vertebrates (including man and other mammals) but its blood cell forming function is lost and replaced by one of destruction of old or worn out red corpuscles and to some degree of blood storage. See **HEMATOPOIESIS**.

The lymphoid tissue of the spleen in higher vertebrates contains many nodules known as Malpighian bodies. These usually contain active germinal centers.

HISTOLOGY

Lymphoid tissue is a tissue in which the predominant cell type under normal conditions is the lymphocyte. Lymphocytes are associated with reticular fibroblasts which form a delicate framework of fibers which can be demonstrated by their affinity for silver. There usually are cells of other types present also including macrophages (fixed and free) plasma cells and occasional eosinophilic granulocyte.

Function. The chief function of the lymphoid tissue is to produce lymphocyte. In efferent lymphatic vessels those leaving the lymph node lymphocytes are considerably more abundant than in afferent lymphatics. Lymphocytes are added to the lymph as it flows through the lymph node. The lymphocyte content of veins coming from the node also is greater than that of arteries going to them. Apparently newly formed lymphocytes also migrate into the capillaries and small veins. A second important function of lymphoid tissue is protection against infection which it carries out by means of its phagocytic and antibody producing activity.

Cellular composition. Lymphocytes are of different size small medium and large. The range in size of the three kinds however varies with different classes and even species of animal. The large lymphocyte resembles very closely the stem cell of blood forming tissue the hemocytoblast. In fact lymphoid tissue itself bears a considerable resemblance to hematopoietic tissue and in lower vertebrates it is not always possible to distinguish it from the other.

The function of the lymphocyte themself is imperfectly known. The study of comparative histology however seems to throw light on their probable role in higher forms. In many invertebrates the regenerative power are much greater than in higher vertebrates. It has been shown that primitive mesenchymatous and free lymphoid cells often aggregate to form the various organs.

and fibrinogen. The filtrate from the blood capillaries consists of water and of sugar and salts in concentrations found within the blood stream plus the proteins in low concentration. The salts and much of the water are reabsorbed by blood vessels whereas the protein together with some water and salt enters the lymphatics. When the normal drainage of protein from the tissue spaces is prevented elephantiasis may result as when the lymphatics are obstructed in filaria. The result is massive edema of a part with dilatation and thickening of the lymphatic capillaries and an overgrowth of connective tissue. See FILARIASIS.

In addition to water ions, small molecules and the large molecules of extracellular protein particles such as injected graphite or extravasated red cells also enter the lymphatic capillaries. Such relatively huge structures pass between the cells.

Composition and properties of lymph. Basically the composition of lymph closely resembles that of the plasma. Chemical and electrophoretic studies show that lymph contains all of the types of protein found in plasma but in lower concentration. The composition of lymph varies to some extent from one part of the body to another. Thus the lymph from the liver contains more protein than that from the skin.

The ability of lymph to coagulate depends largely on its content of fibrinogen and prothrombin and this varies rather markedly. In dogs the mean

prothrombin level is 76 for leg lymph, 51.2 for thoracic duct lymph and 93.2 for liver lymph. There are no blood platelets in lymph and it is thought that thromboplastin generally considered necessary in clotting is formed at the time of clotting from precursors present in the lymph. Calcium also needed in clotting is present in the lymph in slightly lower concentration than in the blood.

The ionic content of lymph does not vary much from that of plasma (Table I). Chloride and bicarbonate levels are higher in the lymph than in the plasma whereas total base is slightly lower.

The glucose content usually is essentially the same in the lymph as in the blood. Curiously the lymph of the kidney has a lower concentration of glucose. When carbohydrate is fed or when an intravenous injection of glucose is made the concentration of this sugar in the lymph lags behind that in the plasma but eventually catches up when an equilibrium between plasma and lymph is attained. Concentrations of amino acid, creatinine and urea are approximately equal in lymph and plasma but in the kidney the urea of the lymph is slightly higher than that of the plasma. It seems probable that some of the renal lymph comes from fluid reabsorbed from the distal and collecting tubules. See KIDNEY, URINARY SYSTEM.

The lipids consist of neutral fat forming the chylomicrons and of cholesterol and phospholipid, the latter two kinds of compounds being associated

Table I. Average values for the concentrations of electrolytes in lymph and plasma

| Subtance or property | Source of lymph | Subject | Plasma | Lymph | Anesthetic |
|------------------------------|-------------------------------|----------|--------|-------|------------|
| Sodium meq/liter | Thoracic duct | Man (5) | 147 | 197 | |
| | Cervical duct | Dog | 163 | 157 | Nembutal |
| Potassium meq/liter | Thoracic duct ^b | Man (5) | 5.0 | 4.7 | |
| | Right lymph duct ^d | Dog (5) | | 5.4 | Nembutal |
| Calcium meq/liter | Thoracic duct ^b | Man (5) | 5.0 | 4.2 | |
| | Thoracic duct | Dog (1) | 5 | 4.6 | Amytal |
| | Cervical duct ^c | Dog (11) | 5.8 | 4.9 | Nembutal |
| Chloride meq/liter | Thoracic duct ^b | Man (5) | 96 | 98 | |
| | Thoracic duct | Dog (1) | 110 | 116 | Amytal |
| | Cervical duct ^c | Dog () | 116 | 1 | Nembutal |
| Inorganic phosphorus mg% | Thoracic duct ^b | Man (5) | 4.5 | 4.4 | |
| | Thoracic duct | Dog (1) | 4.3 | 3.6 | Amytal |
| | Cervical duct ^c | Dog (3) | 5.6 | 5.9 | Nembutal |
| Carbon dioxide ml% | Cervical duct | Dog (7) | 56.8 | 58.8 | Nembutal |
| Carbon dioxide tension mm Hg | Cervical duct | Dog (7) | 46.4 | 40.3 | Nembutal |
| pH | Cervical duct | Dog (7) | 7.34 | 7.41 | Nembutal |

Numbers in parentheses indicate number of subjects studied.

^a H. R. Bierman et al. The characteristics of thoracic lymph duct in man. *J. Clin. Invest.* 3: 637-649, 1933.

^b O. H. Lovery and F. W. Maurer, quoted by C. K. Drinkwater and J. M. Yoffey. *Lymphatics, Lymph and Lymphoid Tissue*. Harvard University Press, 1941.

^c F. C. Courtice, unpublished data.

^d R. M. Arnold and L. B. Mendel. Interrelationships between the chemical composition of the blood and the lymph of the dog. *J. Biol. Chem.* 74: 189-191, 1927.

^e J. W. Heist. On the chemical composition of lymph from subcutaneous vessels. *Am. J. Physiol.* 103: 358, 1933.

^f J. W. Heist and O. C. Leigh. The carbon dioxide content and coagulating power of the cervical lymph. *Am. J. Physiol.* 11: 619-624, 1933.

nervous system. They may also in cases of meningitis or of hemorrhage help to clear the cerebrospinal fluid of cells and of plasma protein.

Cerebrospinal fluid differs from other lymph in its low protein content, low cell content and lower specific gravity (1.004-1.008). It contains no fibrinogen.

The cerebrospinal fluid has at least three functions: (1) it acts as a fluid buffer against shocks and jars of the central nervous system; (2) it serves as a reservoir in regulation of the cranial contents; and (3) it acts as a mechanism for exchange of gases and nutrients in the nervous system. In relation to these functions its properties are particular, but it may be considered as a specialized type of lymph. [WAW]

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Lymphocytic choriomeningitis

A viral infection endemic in mice but occasionally transmitted to man in whom it may produce a mild influenzalike disease or an aseptic meningitis. Sometimes encephalitis or even a fatal systemic disease may be produced.

Diagnosis of lymphocytic choriomeningitis (LCM) is by isolation of the virus from acute phase spinal fluid or blood or by increases in serum antibodies.

Mice are the usual reservoir of virus; they may harbor it throughout life and transmit it to their offspring. Dust and food contaminated by urine or feces are probable vehicles of transmission to man; however, *Trichinella spiralis* can be infected experimentally and has been suggested as a possible means of transmission from animal to animal or through pigs to man. [JLM]

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Lymphogranuloma venereum

A venereal disease caused by a virus of the psittacosis group. The infectious agent has been related to the lymphogranuloma psittacosis group by structure and development forms staining growth in the

yolk sac and antigenic components. The disease, also known as climatic bubo, is manifested in constitutional symptoms and acute or chronic tissue change in the inguinal and rectoanal region.

After venereal exposure painless vesicles develop on the genital organs or anus. The infection may terminate here or it may progress to adenitis of the pelvic lymph nodes accompanied by fever and generalized symptoms even pneumonitis. In the chronic stage plastic induration of the male genitalia or in the female vaginal and rectal stricture with fistula are typical.

Elementary bodies may be seen in cells from human lesions and they are transferable to the white mouse by intracerebral inoculation. Patient or pre-infection can be detected with complement fixation test or more commonly by the intradermal Frei test. Subjective clinical and functional improvement has followed treatment with the antibiotic terramycin. In the United States the disease is more prevalent among Negroes than Caucasians. Serum surveys, early diagnosis and treatment, supervision of infected persons and public education are important in prevention. See ANTIBIOTIC ANTIGEN LYMFGROGRANULOMA PSITTACOSIS GROUP PSITTACOSIS SKIN TEST VIRUS. [KFM]

Lymphogranuloma psittacosis group

Viruses of psittacosis, ornithosis, lymphogranuloma venereum, certain localized infections of mammals, and inclusion blennorrhoea measuring 350-500 mμ in diameter comprise this group that lies along an indistinct line dividing rickettsia from viruses. They stain with formal methylene blue or other basophilic dyes. All grow well in the embryonated egg and tissue culture. One heat-stable antigen is shared by all members and the heat-labile antigens are specific for individual members. Many produce toxins. The viruses are isolated mainly by inoculation of mice or guinea pigs. The tissue and cellular tropisms vary considerably within the group. They are each susceptible to antimicrobial drugs to a somewhat different degree. See ANTIGEN CULTURE EMBRYONATED EGG CULTURE TISSUE RICKETTSIALES VIRUS. [KFM]

Lynx

Any of the several moderate-sized cats of the genus *Lynx*, family Felidae, characterized by long legs, short tails, tufts of hair on each cheek and tufted pointed ears. They are found in the Northern Hemisphere and Africa. Although the bobcat is also a lynx in the United States the name is usually applied only to *Lynx canadensis*. The lynx is about 3 ft long with a short black-tipped tail and large feet. It occurs from Alaska across most of the United States and Canada, northern New England, and northern Michigan and southward in the mountains into California.

The lynx is a cat of the undomesticated type and seldom has much contact with man. Its principal food is the snowshoe rabbit or varying hare.



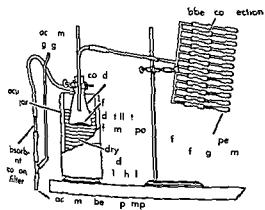
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NEBULAE, CASEOLS [CSY]

Lysin

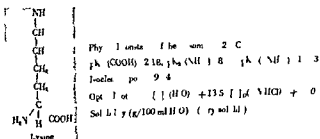
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Immune lysins This is a term used in serology to designate an antibody that in the presence of complement and cofactors such as Mg (magnesium ion) and Ca⁺⁺ (calcium ion) will disrupt a particular type of cell with the release of some of its constituents. This action is in accord with the principles of serologic specificity and is to be distinguished from the more general actions of other lytic chemicals. Immune lysins are also classified according to the general class of cell attacked. Hemolysins are antibodies lysing erythrocytes while bacteriolysins cause the lysis of bacterial cells. Hemolysins against various foreign erythrocytes occur normally in many sera. The Forssman and other heterophile antibodies and the blood group isoantibodies constitute special instances. High titers of hemolysins may also be produced by immunization with erythrocytes and rabbit antibody against sheep erythrocytes is an important laboratory reagent. The so-called amboceptor in complement fixation tests. For example, sheep erythrocytes injected into a rabbit produce antibodies in the rabbit against the sheep red blood cells. The lysis of erythrocytes releases hemoglobin which may be quantitated by eye or by a colorimeter. See ANTIBODY ANTIGEN COMPLEMENT (SERUM) COMPLEMENT FIXATION TEST HEMOLYTIC HETEROPHILE ANTIGEN LYTIC REACTION

Pfeiffer reaction This is an example of a bacteriolytic reaction carried out with gram-negative bacteria such as cholera vibrios which are especially susceptible to the lytic action of specific antibody complement Mg and Ca. This reaction may be carried out in vivo (Pfeiffer's system) or in vitro and is a valuable aid in diagnosis. An analogous reaction is given by the spirochetes of relapsing fever. Although demonstrable in instances of bacteriolysis occurs it is not clear whether all the bactericidal actions of antibody and complement are necessarily preceded by lysis. See CHOLERA VIBRIO [HPT]

Bibliography M. M. Mayer. Studies on the mechanism of hemolysis by antibody and complement. *Prog in Allergy* 5:215, 1958. G. S. Wilson and A. A. Miles. *Topley and Wilson's Principles of Bacteriology and Immunity* 2 vols. 4th ed. 1955.

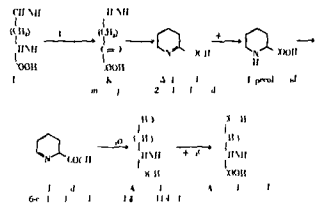
Lysine



An amino acid considered essential for normal growth of animals. The amino acids are characterized physically by the following: (1) the pK₁ or the dissociation constant of the various titratable groups; (2) the isoelectric point or pH at which a

dipolar ion does not migrate in an electric field; (3) the optical rotation or the rotation imparted to a beam of plane polarized light (frequently the D line of the sodium spectrum) passing through 1 decimeter of a solution of 100 grams in 100 ml; (4) solubility. See EQUILIBRIUM IONIC OILFIC TRIC POINT OPTICAL ACTIVITY SPECTROPHOTOMETRIC ANALYSIS

Lysine is a precursor of biocytin (ε-lysine) and of 5-hydroxylysine which occurs only in collagen, a special protein. Lysine biosynthesis is of particular interest because it is a phylogenetic property which together with other features sets the bacteria and blue-green algae apart from all higher microorganisms, plants, and animals. In the former group lysine originates by decarboxylation of diaminopimelic acid (see AMINO ACID). In higher forms lysine is formed by way of α-ketoadipic acid, a product of α-ketoglutarate and acetate. During metabolic degradation it has been well established that the following sequence takes place: lysine → α-aminoadipic acid → α-ketoadipic acid → glutaric acid → α-hydroxyglutarate → α-ketoglutarate. The conversion of lysine to α-aminoadipate requires a complex series of reactions including an intramolecular transamination. There is considerable evidence for the following:



See TRANSAMINATION [EAD]

Lyssacinosa

An order of the class Hexactinellida in the phylum Porifera. The parenchymal megascleres are typically triradiate and uncinated but are sometimes secondarily united. The parenchymal megascleres vary from hexactin to diactin. The latter are always present and sometimes exclusively. *Isostella*, *Euplectella*, *Rosella*, and *Rhabdocalypus* are examples of this order. See HEXACTINELLIDA HEXASTEROIDORA [WDH]

Lytic reaction

A term used in serology to designate a reaction that leads to the disruption of lysosomes of a cell. The best example is the lysis of sheep red blood cells by specific antibody lysins and complement in the presence of Ca (calcium ion) and Mg (magnesium ion) a reaction that forms the indurated

tem of the standard Warrmann test for syphilis as all other complement fixation reactions. If the example is result in the release of cellular material from the medium the reaction may be followed by usual spectrophotometric estimation of the decreased turbidity or the increased optical density of the medium due to the free hemoglobin. By appropriate choice of graph papers and coordinates the entire set of hemolysis curves over a range of

reagent concentrations may be predicted from two or more accurate measurements in the intermediate range. As outlined by M. M. Mayer and his associates the mechanism of the lytic reaction of red cells is a complex multi-stepped one.

[HPT]

Bibliography M. M. Mayer Studies on the mechanism of hemolysis by antibody and complement *Prog in Allergy* 5:215 1958

